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THE YEAR - BOOK

of the

CZECHOSLOVAK REPUBLIC

1 9 2 9

Edited by

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FOREWORD

A new State, known as the Czechoslovak Republic, came into being in the heart of Europe at the end of the World War. It was founded on the ruins of the Hapsburg monarchy, amid general confusion and economic, financial and social chaos. Despite the difficulties of the situation, the Republic resolutely devoted itself to the work of reconstruction and the untiring efforts of the men who were at the head of affairs has succeeded in placing the State upon a firm and democratic basis, in introducing financial sanitation, in re-establishing normal economic conditions, and, in a word, in creating conditions favourable to the peaceful development and continuity of the internal affairs of the State and in re-instating it in its place in the community of nations. And thus, on the occasion of the tenth anniversary of its foundation, the Czechoslovak Republic can look back with satisfaction on all that has been accomplished and, fortified by the same energy for work, visualises the tasks which have to be taken up to-day and those which can be expected in the future.

The purpose of this book is, above all, to be informative: it is an effort to present to the international public a faithful and impartial picture of the political, cultural and economic conditions of Czechoslovakia and of the people who, having called that State into existence, having taken their stand upon the democratic principle of the rights of the majority, have accepted before the world and before history the responsibility for its organisation, its internal and foreign policy, in short, of its whole development.

If, as the editors hope, this publication is destined to be revived, in the near future, in the form of a new edition, they will devote attention to improving and increasing its contents, in particular by completing the articles relating to the economic and intellectual life of the national minorities in the Czechoslovak Republic, especially of the German minority which is distinguished both by the number of its members and by their degree of material culture and intellect and by the fact that two ministers represent them in the Government.

We take this opportunity of thanking all our collaborators and beg of them to continue their cooperation with us in the future.

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PRONUNCIATION OF CZECH AND SLOVAK

For practical reasons only the most necessary indications are given in the following alphabetical list, which shows the phonetic value of the characters singly and in various combinations.

The first syllable of the word or of a prepositional phrase bears the main stress. Expressions of more than three syllables may have a secondary stress either on the third or fourth syllable. This mechanical stress has no audible influence either on the quality, or on the quantity of the vowels. There is no reduced vowel; all the letters are to be pronounced. The length is marked in the official orthography by a stroke (upon the vowel *u* also by a little circle).

The letters omitted here can be read as in English. The indicated pronunciation is that of the literary language and no dialectal peculiarities are noted.

- a short is similar to the German, normal vowel.
- á long is like the *a* in English: *arc*, *half*.
- aj when in the same syllable, is a diphthong, where the second element is closer than in English: *I*, *by*.
- áj is the same diphthong with a long first element.
- ä occurs only in Slovak with the value of English *a* (in *bad*); nevertheless one can hear also a diphthong *ea* or the normal *a* instead of it.
- b identical with the English *b*, but changes into *p* before a pause or before a voiceless consonant, e. g. *Dub*, *Labský*.
- c represents the sound *ts*, as in German *z*.
- č = in English *ch*.
- d in analogy to *b*, becomes *t* only in cases as: *Brod*, *Zahrádka*. In words of Slavonic origin, the syllables *di*, *dě* (in Slovak *di*, *de*) are pronounced with a *d'* (see below).
- ď represents a palatal plosive, articulated by the "front" of the tongue against the hard palate, the tip of the tongue being kept down near the lower teeth. It becomes a voiceless *t* in the same position as *b*, *d*.
- dz is the voiced *c*, as in Italian: *mezzo*.
- dž = English *j*, *ge*.
- e short is always open and does not change into *i* or dark *e*.
- é long is a little closer, but not so much as in the French vowel.
- ě represents the group *je* (or *ie*) only after labial consonants, e. g. *Bělá* = *bjelá*; *Město* = *mjesto* or rather *mňesto*. After other consonants, it is the simple *e*, which changes the preceding *d*, *t*, *n* into *d'*, *t'*, *n'*.

- ej** when in the same syllable, is a diphthong, resembling the English *a* in: same, way, but shorter.
- g** = English *g*(t), as in: game, give.
- h** is strongly voiced and rough as initial or between two vowels and before voiced consonants; before voiceless consonants and at the end it becomes *ch* (see below).
- ch** is a fricative sound articulated with the back of the tongue raised towards the soft palate, in German *Ach-laut* or in Scottish: *loch*.
- i** short, always as in: finish, but narrower especially in *dí, tí, ní*.
- í** long, always as in: year, but narrower especially in *dí, tí, ní*.
- ia, ie** in Slovak are diphthongs, resembling the Italian: *piano, piede*.
- j** = initial sound in English: yes, unite.
- k** is pronounced without aspiration as in French. Before voiced consonants it changes to *g* (e. g. *Kbely* = *gbeli*).
- l** is able to form a syllable, e. g. *VI-tava*, without a dark resonance.
- ľ** was formerly palatal, but can be now identified with a normal *l* with clear resonance. (This diacritical letter occurs only in Slovak orthography).
- n** followed by *i, ě* (in Slovak by *i, e*) is pronounced like *ň* (see lower).
- ň** represents a palatal consonant, articulated in the same place as *ď* and equal to the French or Italian *gn* (cf. the English: new, union).
- ô** represents in Slovak the diphthong *uo*, like in Italian: *buono*.
- oj** represents the same diphthong as in English *oil, boy* (only with closer *i*).
- ou** represents the same diphthong as in English *go, old* (but with short *o*).
- r** is alveolar and strongly trilled as in Italian or Indian.
- ř** is a result of a former palatalised *ř* and it does not occur in Slovak. The diacritical letter represents two varieties of this peculiar sound, formed by a simultaneous production of a rapid vibration of the tongue-tip and of a sibilant: in initial position, between vowels and before or after voiced consonants, it is a voiced combination: *řž*; at the end and before or after voiceless consonants, it is a voiceless combination *rs*, resembling the English: *tree*.
- s** becomes *z* only by assimilation to the following voiced consonant or, in foreign words, between vowels and after *r, n, l* (e. g. *fysika, korso, konserva, emulse*); otherwise it is always a voiceless *ss*, articulated near the teeth than in English.
- š** = English *sh*.
- t** is pronounced without aspiration as in French and closely to the teeth; when followed by *i, ě* (in Slovak by *i, e*), it becomes *ť* (see lower).
- ť** represents a palatal plosive, corresponding to the voiced *đ* (cf. *tube*).
- ú, ů** are long as in English: *poor, sure*.

- v the same as in English *v*, becomes *f* in Czech at the end and before voiceless consonants; in Slovak it becomes a halfvowel u which forms diphthongs with the preceding vowels.
- y = i; *y* is long. (Before *y*, *y*, the consonants *d*, *t*, *n* remain hard).
- z the same as in English, becomes voiceless *ss* at the end and before voiceless consonants.
- ž resembles the English sibilant in measure; it becomes voiceless *sh* at the end or before voiceless consonants.

I.

HISTORICAL

AND

POLITICAL SECTION

1. GEOGRAPHICAL CONDITIONS

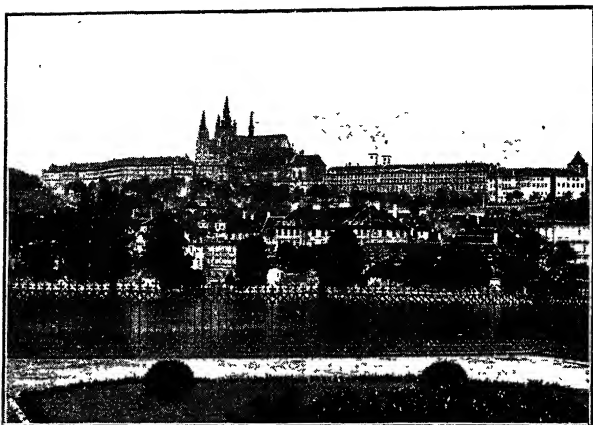
SITUATION AND AREA

The frontiers of Czechoslovakia were recognized by the peace treaties of Versailles, Saint Germain and Trianon, by the treaty of Sèvres of the 10th of October 1920 and by decision of the Conference of Ambassadors of 28th July 1920. It is made up partly of the so-called "historical lands" of Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia, which used to be the constituent parts of the one-time Kingdom of Bohemia, and partly of Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia, both of which territories formerly belonged to Hungary. The historical lands were slightly increased at the expense of Germany by the assignation to the Czechoslovak Republic of the district of Hlučín, and at the expense of Austria, from whose territory the Czechoslovak Republic received the districts of Valtice and Vitoraz; on the other hand, by the decision of the Conference of Ambassadors of 28 July 1920 the eastern part of Silesia (the district of Bilek and a portion of the district of Těšín or Teschen) and a part of the Slovak counties of Spiš and Orava were assigned to Poland. Carpathian Ruthenia was incorporated in the Czechoslovak Republic as an autonomous territory, its autonomy being guaranteed by the Treaty of Saint Germain of 10 September 1919.

The Czechoslovak Republic occupies an area of 140,408 sq. kilometres, and among the European States is 15th in order of size. The areas of the various lands are as follows:

	Sq. Km.
Bohemia (including the district of Vitoraz covering 118 sq. km.)	52,064
Moravia (including the district of Valtice covering 93 sq. km.)	4,452
Silesia (including the district of Hlučín covering 314 sq. km.)	4,452
Slovakia	48,933
Carpathian Ruthenia	<u>12,644</u>
Total	140,408

The Czechoslovak Republic is an inland State situated on the great watershed between the Black, Baltic and North Seas. In shape it resembles a long wedge with the thick end to the West and the thin end to the East. Owing to its elongated form the length of its frontiers is considerable (2800 km.). The greatest length of the entire State is some 1000 km., its greatest width does not exceed 300 km., and it narrows at its eastern extremity in Carpathian Ruthenia to 50 km. To this disadvantage caused by the form of the State, is added the further one that Czechoslovakia possesses no direct access to the sea. In some

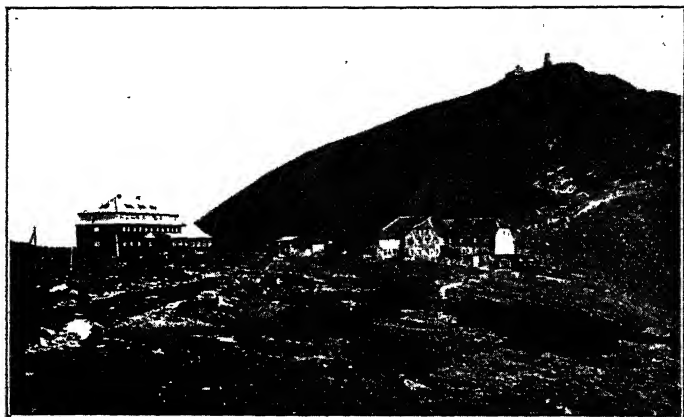


Prague Castle (Hradčany).

degree this is counterbalanced by the internationalization of the chief rivers flowing through the Republic: the Danube, on which is located the main port, Bratislava (93,000 inhabitants), the Elbe with the port of Ústí n. L. or Aussig (65,000 inhabitants) and the Oder; further by the facilities allowed Czechoslovakia in the harbours of Hamburg, Stettin and Trieste. It is necessary, of course, that the State, whose main axis extends from west to east, should build up its railway system so that the districts belonging to different hydrographical regions may be joined into one whole. The railway system of the Republic still suffers to a considerable extent from the conditions of the past when the centres of the railway system were Vienna and Budapest.

RIVERS

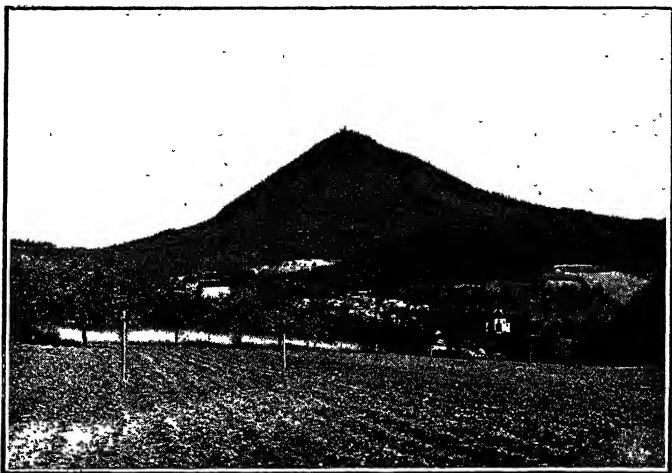
The west and the east of the Republic belong to two different geographical regions: the Bohemian plateau and the Carpathians. Bohemia represents a geographical whole. The essence of its geographical individuality, based practically on a single hydrographical network (94.2% of the soil belongs to the Vltava-Elbe river-basin) surrounded by a fringe of mountains, was pointed out very well by the oldest Czech chronicler, Cosmas. Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia represent a second group which, apart from small territories lying to the south of the High Tatra drained by the river Poprad and belonging



*Sněžka (Snowcap), the highest peak of the Krkonoše
(Giant Mountains).*

to the basin of the Vistula, slopes down to the Danube. Between these two groups stretches the region of Moravia and Silesia, connecting Bohemia with Slovakia. Its north and west forms part of the Bohemian plateau, the eastern portion belonging to the Carpathian mountain system. From the hydrographical point of view Moravia is not a whole like Bohemia. The river Morava, from which Moravia derives its name, drains to the Danube some 86.3% of the whole area, whilst the small northern portion of Moravia and the whole of Silesia are drained by the Oder. The transitional character of the central region of Moravia is evident also from the ethnographical point of view, for the population of Moravia forms a transition between the Czechs on the west and the Slovaks on the east.

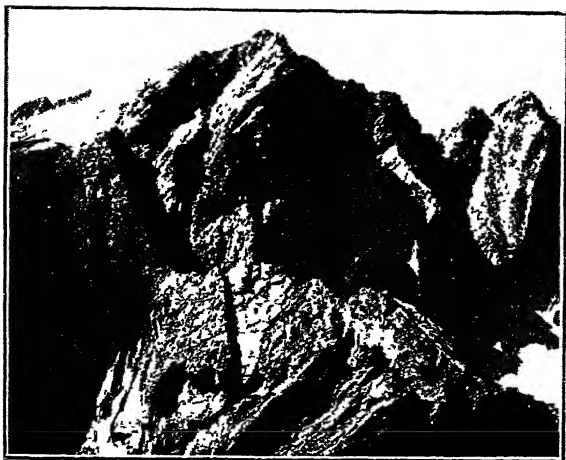
Although Czechoslovakia lacks territorial compactness, it is not a defect that could not at least be alleviated by the building up of communications for the purpose of overcoming the natural obstacles.



Milešovka, the highest point of the Bohemian Středohoří range.

MOUNTAINS

The west of the Republic consists of the very old Bohemian block, which is divided into an older massif in the south and an arc of mountains in the north. The Bohemian massif again consists of the Hercyn range of mountains, to which belong the Bohemian Forest and the Šumava (the highest point of which, Javor [1,457 m], lies in Bavarian territory in the west), and the Bohemian-Moravian highlands with an average height of 500 m. in the south-east, the edge of which borders a zone of Devonian limestone (Moravský Kras or Moravian Karst) with the celebrated chasm of Macocha (137 m). In the bosom of the Šumava primeval forests are small hidden lakes, the origin of which is probably connected with the glacial period. In the southern part of the massif, which is composed of crystalline minerals, there are two tertiary basins, those of Budějovice and Třeboň, with numerous extensive fishponds, the largest of which—the Rožmberk fishpond—has a superficial area of 720 hectares. The middle of the South Bohemian massif is formed by the Central Bohemian granite plateau, adjacent to which on the north are the palaeozoical Brda Heights that attain an altitude of 857 metres at Tok. The Smrčiny, Krušné (Ore) Hory and Sudetes Mountains form parts of the mountain-range on the frontier of North Bohemia, and situated in their foothills are the world-famous



The High Tatra Mountains.

baths of Jáchymov (Joachimstal). The highest peaks of the Sudetes are Klinovec (1244 m.), Sněžka or Snowcap (1603 m.) which is in the Krkonoše Mountains, and Praděd (1490 m.) in the Jeseník. The inner slopes of this mountain-range, where crystalline minerals also prevail, are accompanied by dislocations and the volcanic phenomena connected therewith. On both sides of the Elbe rises the Bohemian Středohoří which is of volcanic origin; they are cut by the river Ohře and are famous on account of the well-known mineral springs of Karlovy Vary (Carlsbad). In a considerable portion of North Bohemia there prevails a chalk formation, in which sandstone forms picturesque districts, such as the Bohemian-Saxon Switzerland and Teplice.

The eastern portion of the Republic is formed by the Carpathians which are relatively young mountains (folded at the same time as the Alps); their external arch consists of the Beskids (Radhošť 1130 m., Babia Gora 1725 m.) and the Poloninské Carpathians (Hoverla 2057 m.). This external arch is composed of a sandstone zone and of two limestone zones. The central Carpathian zone, which is formed from crystalline minerals, has its highest peaks (Gerlach 2663 m., Rysy 2503 m.) in the granite High Tatra with their picturesque lakes of glacial origin. South of the High Tatra stretches the Low Tatra (Ďumbir 2045 m.), with a karst region on the north (Demänov cave). In the south-east the Slovak Karst proper joins the Slovak Ore Mountains (Krušnohoří) which owe their name to the wealth of useful ores situated here. The

third Carpathian zone, formed from young lava, stretches by way of the Štiavnice Mountains to the south of Slovakia, and through the Prešov-Tokai zone to the east of Slovakia.

The lowlands in Czechoslovakia follow the courses of the chief rivers, stretching along the Elbe, the Middle and Lower Morava, the Lower Dyje and Svratka, and the Danube with its tributary the Tisa (Theiss), where the great Hungarian plain extends up to the territory of the Republic.

CLIMATE

Connected with the situation of Czechoslovakia is its climate which is influenced by that of Western Europe as well as by that of Eastern Europe. The difference between the average temperature of the hottest and coldest months, which in Czechoslovakia are July and January, is 20.5° Celsius in Prague and 22.8° in Užhorod.

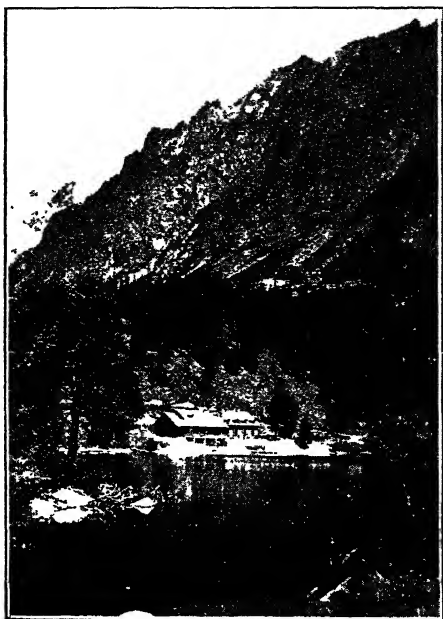
The prevailing winds in the higher mountains, like the Tatras and the Krkonoše, are moisture-bringing, westerly ones, and mention should also be made of the Föhn winds. The surface distribution of rainfall, of which the maximum is in June and July and the minimum in February and January, is conditioned chiefly by altitude factors. But not even the highest mountains in the Carpathians constitute a climatic boundary as do the Alps. In spite of the maximum rainfall in the summer months, the rivers, apart from the Danube, suffer on the whole from a deficiency of water.

POPULATION

According to the census of 1921, the Czechoslovak Republic has altogether some 13,612,000 inhabitants, and therefore occupies the tenth place among the European States in respect of population.

As regards the national division of the population, there are 8,760,957 Czechoslovaks, 3,123,448 Germans, 747,096 Magyars, 180,536 Jews, 75,852 Poles, 23,052 persons of various nationalities, and 238,943 foreigners. The percentage of the Slav element in the Republic is 69.5%. Amongst the Slavs, the predominating branch is that of the Czechoslovaks who make up 65.5% of the total population, the ratio of Czechs to Slovaks being 3.5:1. The Russian (Ukrainian) population amounts to 3.4% and the Polish to 0.6%. The German population amounts to 23.4% and the Magyar population to 5.6% of the total number of inhabitants in the Republic. The remainder (about 1.5%) is composed of the national Jews, Rumanians and Gypsies. The Czechoslovak branch inhabits the broad zone which begins at the western frontier near Domažlice and stretches as far as the region lying to the east of the Tatras. There the Slovak element merges into the Russian population.

The Poles reach over into the territory of the Republic in the district of Těšín (Teschen). The region inhabited by the Germans occupies an area of a little over one fifth of the entire State (in numbers the Germans form not quite one fourth of the whole population) and stretches along the frontiers of Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia. This territory populated by Germans is not, however, a solidly connected area, and its north-western part at the foot of the Ore Mountains (the largest part, forming one half of the entire German territory in the Republic) contains numerous *enclaves* of Czechs. Several German *enclaves*, the largest of which is that of Svitava-Lanškroun, are found also in the middle portions of the Republic. The Magyars occupy one thirteenth part of the entire territory of the State and inhabit the districts on the southern boundaries of Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia. In their area there is, however, a Slovak minority between Hornád and Michalany. In addition to a few *enclaves* (near Nitra and to the east of Košice), the Magyar element is represented also by minorities in the towns.



Popradské pleso (the High Tatra).

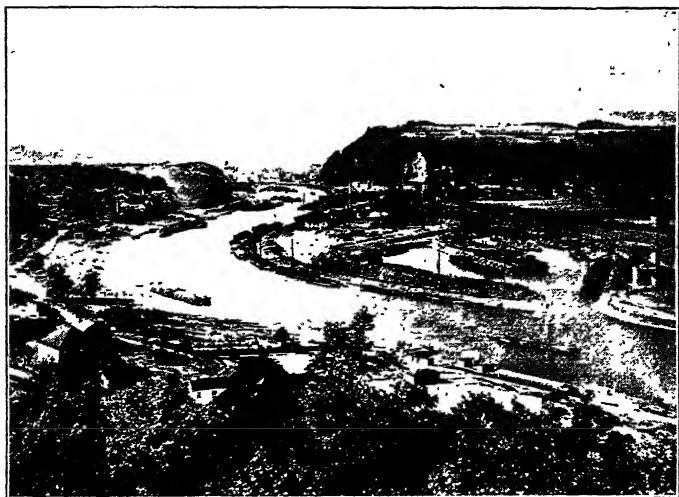
The majority of the population is Roman Catholic (76.3%). Adherence to other religions is shown by the following percentages: Protestants (Evangelicals) of all categories 7.3%, Greek Catholics and adherents of the Czechoslovak Church, each 3.9%, Jews 2.6%, Eastern Orthodox 0.5%, Old Catholics 0.1%, those persons not belonging to any Church 5.3%. In the geographical distribution of the religious creeds a characteristic feature is the numerical ascendancy of the Jews towards the east. They constitute 2.6% of the total population of the Republic; in Slovakia they form 4.5% of the population (in the *župa* or county of Ko-

sice, 8%); in Carpathian Ruthenia they constitute 15.4% and are concentrated mainly in the towns, forming nearly half the population of Mukačevo. The strong movement towards Eastern Orthodoxy, which has been noticeable among the Slav population of Carpathian Ruthenia since the creation of the Republic in October 1918, has brought about a decrease of 10.8% in the number of Greek Catholics or Uniats, as compared with the census of 1910.

The territory of the Czechoslovak Republic forms a transition from the cultural and economic point of view between Western and Eastern Europe. In the natural growth of population there is a considerable difference between the western and eastern parts of the Republic. Since the last third of the 19th century statistical data point to a feature that is characteristic of Western Europe, namely, a decline in the number of births in the Czech lands (especially in Bohemia), whereas in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia there has been a high birthrate, accompanied however by a high death-rate. During the period 1921-24 the percentage of births and deaths was 2.6% and 1.5%, whilst that in Carpathian Ruthenia was 4.4% and 2.3% respectively. In the economic sphere a characteristic feature is the transition of Czechoslovakia from an agricultural to an industrial country, as is evident from the statistics relating to the occupations followed by the population and also to its topographical distribution. As regards occupations, 39.6% of the total population are engaged in agriculture, 33.8% in industry and handicrafts, and 10.7% in commerce and banking.

If we consider the participation of the various nationalities in the different occupations, we find that 34.4% of the Czechoslovaks and 26.9% of the Germans are engaged in agriculture, whilst the figures for industry and handicrafts are 37.9% and 44.1% respectively. This means that the German population is industrialized to a higher degree than the Czechoslovak majority.

As regards the distribution of population, only 26 towns, according to the statistics of 1926, record a larger number of inhabitants than 20,000. In these is concentrated some 14.3% of the total population. Only four towns in the Republic have over 100,000 inhabitants. These are the capital, Prague (677,000), the political, social and cultural centre, which dates back to pre-historic days and owes its development above all to the advantageous conditions of its situation that enabled it to become the actual centre of Czech national life. The capital is also the centre of a considerable textile industry, and also of the metal and other industries. Next in importance is Brno (222,000), the capital of Moravia, and one of the chief centres of the textile industry in the Republic. Then follow the two centres of the iron industry, Moravská Ostrava (114,000) and Plzeň (108,000). Roughly speaking, one third of the population is engaged in industry; at the same time, however, towns with a population



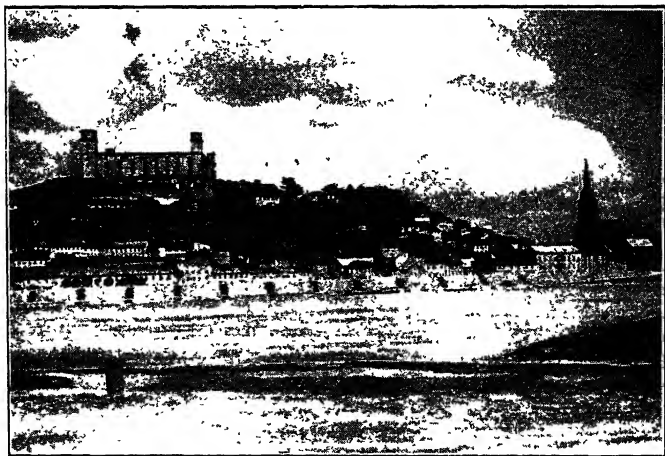
Ústí on the Elbe (river port).

of over 20,000 account for only a little more than one sixth of the total population, and among the towns with 20,000-50,000 inhabitants Užhorod (20,600) and Mukačevo (20,900) cannot be regarded as industrial centres. Košice (52,900) is only partly industrial. A characteristic feature of the Czechoslovak Republic is that industry has its centre also in the smaller towns, mainly in Slovakia.

Closely connected with the economic conditions, particularly with the concentration of industry in certain regions, is also the distribution of the density of the population. The most densely populated regions are naturally the industrial districts, especially in the coalfields where the iron industry has grown up. In the typically industrialized region of Ostrava there are, for example, about one thousand inhabitants to the square kilometre. This region is therefore ten times more densely populated than is the Republic as a whole which has an average density of 97 persons per square kilometre; the contrast is particularly great as compared with Carpathian Ruthenia where the average density of population is 48 inhabitants to the sq. km. or one half that obtaining for the whole Republic. Other thickly populated areas are the North Bohemian industrial region, in which is situated Liberec (73,000, including the inhabitants of the immediate surroundings), and the district of Kladno. Well populated are also the fertile districts like Polabí and

Haná, where agricultural industries flourish. The growth of the larger towns there, such as Hradec Králové (some 30.000 inhabitants, including the surrounding villages), Pardubice (25.000) on the Elbe, Olomouc (57.000), Prostějov (31.000) and Píseň (23.000) in the Haná district, has been fostered by favourable communications. Density of population decreases naturally in the less fertile districts, in which towns could develop only where there were suitable conditions for industry. Thus in South Bohemia there is only one town of some size, Budějovice (59.000, including the inhabitants of the neighbouring villages), whilst in Western Moravia there is Jihlava (28.000). In the whole of the Czechoslovak Republic the density of population decreases on the average towards the east. According to the statistics of 1921, there are 128 persons per square kilometre in Bohemia, 119 in Moravia, 61 in Slovakia and 48 in Carpathian Ruthenia. An exception in this falling scale of density of population in the east is strongly industrialized Silesia, which with its 152 to the sq. km. is above the average for Bohemia.

A general indication of cultural conditions is the percentage of persons who can neither read nor write. Although the small percentage of such persons in the Czech lands (2.9%) bears witness to the high level of education existing in these parts of the Republic, the figures are much less favourable in the eastern parts of the country. Slovakia has 14.7% and Carpathian Ruthenia 50% of illiterates. These figures constitute an eloquent accusation against the former Hungarian régime.



Bratislava, capital of Slovakia.

2. HISTORY

AN OUTLINE OF CZECHOSLOVAK HISTORY

1. The Czechoslovak nation was born to the life of history at a period when, out of the chaotic conditions which followed on the downfall of the Roman Empire, new political groupings, from which the Middle Ages developed, began to crystallize in Europe. At that time, the country which to-day is Czechoslovakia, situated in the heart of Europe at a juncture of the great routes, was never regarded as a mother country by any of the primitive peoples who occupied it. It was no more to them than temporary grazing lands for its immigrants who were themselves generally of a nomadic type, and who moved on elsewhere when they had exhausted the material resources of the district.

Thus, in Bohemia, the most ancient inhabitants of Europe, the diluvian man, made his abode, and was followed by a crowd of prehistoric races, who left proofs of their sojourning, especially in Czechoslovakia, in the traces which are found to-day of their ancient dwellings and the places in which they interred their dead. Much later the first people of whom history makes mention made their appearance in Czechoslovakia. These were the Celts (V to the I century B. C.) one tribe of whom, the Boii by name, occupied Bohemia, while another tribe, the Cotinians, established themselves in Moravia and in Slovakia. It is from the first tribe, the Boii, from whom Bohemia derives the name by which the country is known abroad. After the departure of the Celts



Vyšehrad. Prague.

the territory of modern Czechoslovakia witnessed the arrival of Germanic peoples during the first centuries of the Christian era. The tribe of the Marcomanni over-ran Bohemia; that of the Quadi, led by Marobud, possessed themselves of Moravia and Slovakia. Even during that epoch, the Romans advanced, but only for a time; the extreme point of their military posts beyond the Danube was Trenčín, in Slovakia, and Mušov, in the South of Moravia.

II. The Germans were succeeded, probably about the VI century A. D., by the Slav tribes, who came in successive waves from the regions situated beyond the Carpathians. The new arrivals never left the country, but gradually merged into a nation, founded and organized a State, and by a tremendous cultural activity extending over more than a thousand years, gained the right to call that country—the actual territory of Czechoslovakia—their Motherland. Of the immense expanse of territory lying at the East of Europe, and peopled without clearly defined continuity by the large Slav family, the Czechoslovaks populated the most Western portion. It is not, therefore, surprising that almost from the moment of their first appearance their civilisation identified itself closely with Western civilisation. Of all the Slavs, they were the first to find in that civilisation a precious heritage in common with all the white race; moreover, they applied themselves assiduously to spreading the new culture among their Slav brethren in more Eastern regions.

The first attempt which the tribes of the Western Slavs made to group themselves as a powerful political body was the work of a Frank merchant, S a m o, who, in the VII century, delivered the Slavs of the Danube valley from the yoke of the Avars, and founded in those regions a large empire sufficiently strong for the defence of its independence against the assaults of the formidable Frankish empire itself. The empire of S a m o embraced the actual territory of Czechoslovakia, but it also took in the Slav tribes established near by, to the East, to the South, and probably also to the North. The empire of S a m o which flourished between 623 and 658, collapsed on the death of its founder, and the Slav tribes who were united for the time, became subject to the Roman Empire of the West. It is fitting to remark here that the bonds always lay lightly; the Slavs were simply tributaries and were not included in the administrative organism of that Empire. After the collapse of the empire of Charlemagne in the IX century, the Slav countries of the West became independent and a large new empire, that of Great Moravia, came into being. One of its rulers, the first of whom history makes mention, Prince M o j m í r (about 830), enlarged its frontiers on the East and expelled P r i b i n a, the first Christian prince to rule over the Western Slavs, from the lands of Nitra.

The Empire of Great Moravia orientated in a direction which

was most important for the subsequent evolution of the Czechoslovak nation. It was during that epoch, in fact, that the tribes included in that Empire became converts to Christianity, thanks to the efforts of a successor of Mojmír, prince Rostislav, who, in 863 begged from the Emperor of Bazantium, Michel III, the Christian apostles, Constantir. (Cyril) and Method, both of whom were Slavs hailing from Salonica. Thanks to the new light carried from the East, the



Týn Church, Prague.

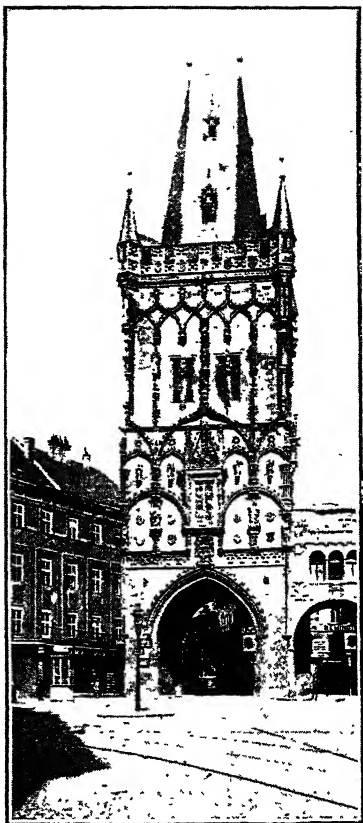
Slavs of Moravia entered into the sphere of civilized nations and almost immediately afterwards began to spread the benefits of their new civilisation throughout the whole of the Orient. The Slav alphabet (the "glagolice" of Constantine), devised on the model of the Greek alphabet, and the Slav liturgy spread by the Saints, Cyril and Method, are—so to speak—the two columns upon which rests the civilisation of all the Slav nations of the East and South. During the first period of their civilised life, the Czechoslovak tribes came under the influence of Bazantium. Nevertheless, even under *Svatopluk* (871-894), the successor of Rostislav, who brought the empire of Great Moravia to the zenith of its political power, conflict showed itself between the Bazantine ecclesiastic tendency represented by Saint Method—whom Pope

Adrian II had in the meanwhile elevated to the dignity of Archbishop of the whole of the Danube region inhabited by Slavs of the East—and the German priests of the Latin rites. Although Bohemia received Christianity from the hands of Method (the baptism of Prince Bořivoj and his wife, Ludmila, took place about 874), the Western tendency, supported by Svatopluk completely triumphed, and the disciples of Method, quitting Moravia, led missions to the other Slav nations. The Czechoslovak tribes, already strongly attracted by the Western culture, were drawn definitely into its orbit, reckoning from the date when the empire of Great Moravia was founded until the beginning of the century when the Magyars invaded the Danubian countries. The Slav patriarchate of Method was overthrown, the Slav tribes of the West were cut off from those of the South, and the Slovak branch was politically detached, for a thousand years, from the Czech branch of the nation, although Slovakia never ceased to receive a share of the national culture common to both branches. Fresh efforts, notably those which occurred during the first centuries that followed the Magyar invasion, were made to regroup these branches as a national and political entity, but were unsuccessful. After the Magyar invasion that portion of the empire of Grand Moravia known as Bohemia alone maintained its independence. Henceforth it was in Bohemia where the new political body was rough-cast, and from this, at a later date, sprang the Duchy and the Kingdom of Bohemia.

III. The distinction of having founded the new State belongs to that tribe of the Czechs who inhabited the centre of Bohemia and dwelt around the Castle of Prague, and over whom reigned the princes of the legendary dynasty of *Přemysl*. To weld into a single nation the different Czech tribes who, up to then, had been ruled by independent princelings, to extend to all the country the advantages of a uniform administration and finally to impregnate them with the Christian civilisation, was the threefold task which was assumed and carried out with thoroughness by the *Přemyslides* during the first centuries of the existence of the new State. In effect, the *Přemyslides* played a similar rôle in Bohemia to that undertaken in France by the Capets. Because of the international situation of that time, the evolution of the Czech State was unable to make progress except as a part of the Holy Roman Empire. Moreover the rulers of Bohemia, dukes in the earlier days and kings later, struggled unceasingly from the X to the XIV century against the German Emperors in the defence of their independence. This struggle, full of sudden changes of fortune, more than once modified the external relations of the State and the interior administration of the nation. The state of vassalage which bound the Bohemian sovereigns to the German Emperors was gradually relaxed until, in the XV century, it totally disappeared.

By his deeds, not less than by the pious tradition which he founded, a grandson of Bořivoj, the Ducal Saint *Václav* (Wenceslaus, 920-929), was one of the men who did most to impregnate the nation with the Christian spirit of the West. In addition, *Václav* regulated, by means of a treaty concluded with Henry I, the situation of the Duchy in relation to the Empire. Moreover, he knew how to draw the Czech tribes into a more compact political unity by means of pacific methods. Building upon the foundations laid by Saint *Václav*, his successors, Boleslav I (929-967), and Boleslav II (967-999) made out of Bohemia a State of real power in Central Europe. Under their reign the work of unification was commenced and the knightly families were brought under the Prague government. At the same time the boundaries of the State were extended to the East as far as Moravia, Slovakia and Silesia. It was through Silesia that Bohemia made her first contact with Poland. The marriage between the Polish Prince, *Měško* and *Doubrava*, the daughter of Boleslav, hastened the conversion of Poland to the Christian faith.

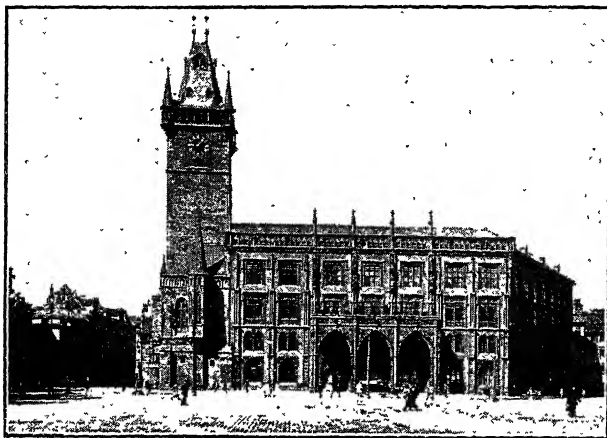
From the point of view of general culture, Bohemia, even at that period, participated actively in the young Roman civilisation. While letters and the arts flourished, an appreciable progress in the economic sphere could be noticed. The elevation of Prague to an episcopal see (973) freed Bohemia from subordination to the German Empire in all matters touching ecclesiastic affairs. On the other hand, the foundation of monasteries helped to raise the level of religious life. The second Bishop of Prague, Saint *Vojtěch* (Adalbert), a member of the



*The Powder Tower
(Ancient Gate), Prague.*

family of Slavnikovci—one of those which had reigned over the ancient tribes—introduced to Bohemia the principles—new at that epoch—which has inspired the rule of Cluny. His efforts not meeting with understanding in Bohemia, Vojtěch undertook, after the extermination of his family, missionary work in Hungary and among the Slavs of the East, and founded the archbishoprics of Hnězdno and Ostřihom.

The work of civilisation and settlement accomplished during the



The Old Town Hall, Prague.

reign of the Boleslavs during the X century was threatened in the XI century by the conflict which arose among their inefficient descendants on the succession question. As a result of these internecine dissensions, a Polish prince, Boleslav the Brave (grandson, on his mother's side, to the Czech king, Boleslav I) invaded Bohemia with the intention of annexing it to Poland and thus of forming a new large empire of the Slavs of the West. But the intervention of the German Emperor replaced the native dynasty of the Přemyslides on the throne, who thus fell under heavier tutelage to the German Empire. The further development of Bohemia during the course of the XI and XII centuries, is characterised by the efforts of the Prague Dukes to obtain, in the first place, the royal crown, and thus become more independent of the Holy Roman Empire, and in the second place to enlarge the frontiers of the State to the East and to reunite to the national throne those

branches of the Eastern Slavs who had been separated by the invasion of the Magyars, and finally to cement their Czech possessions by a united, properly organised internal system. They realised this programme without ceasing to remain in contact with the German emperors, sometimes as allies, sometimes as adversaries. Břetislav I (1034-1055) united Moravia to Bohemia in a lasting union together with a portion of Silesia and of Slovakia. His son, Spytihněv II (1055-



Domažlice, West Bohemia.

1061), made vain efforts to obtain the royal crown from the hands of the Pope. When the quarrel touching investiture arose between Pope and Emperor, it had the effect of drawing Bohemia to the Empire in an alliance, and in 1085 Vratislav II (1061-1092) obtained permission to wear the crown from the Emperor Henry IV, whom he had supported in his struggle against Gregory VII. Internal dissensions which sprang up among the Přemyslides were the reason why the title of king was not also accorded to the descendants of Vratislav. The duchy of Bohemia sank once more into a state of vassalage to the Empire. The valliant Soběslav I (1125-1140) succeeded in consolidating the autonomy of the Czech State in the struggle against the Emperor Lothar and he succeeded also in strengthening the State from within; at the same time it was during his reign that the pressure exercised upon Bohemia by her German neighbour began to make itself more

heavily felt within the country. Greedy for expansion, the German element sought beyond the German frontiers more favourable conditions of life and penetrated thus into Bohemia; a systematic colonisation implanted them there; later, they founded new monasteries and cleared large tracts of territory in the frontier forests. Without doubt, the German colonists revived the economic life of Bohemia, improved business, and bettered the working conditions of the agricultural class, but, at the same time, they introduced into the country the germs of perpetual internal strife. The reigning dynasty allied themselves by marriage during that period with the German Emperors, and by virtue of these ties strengthened the German hold upon the Czech State.

Vladislav II (1140-1173) succeeded, in his turn, in obtaining the crown and personal title of a king, but the rivalry among the Přemyslides—a family which had increased to astonishing proportions numerically—brought grave peril towards the end of the XII century to the political work of the Dukes of Bohemia. The Emperor Frederick Barbarossa directed a formidable blow at their power by attaching Moravia and the Bishop of Prague to the Empire. Nevertheless the efforts of the German Emperors to reduce Bohemia to a state of complete vassalage resulted in disappointment for the Emperors, thanks to the understanding which was reached among the native claimants to the throne of Bohemia.

IV. Přemysl-Otakar I (1197-1230), called to the throne as a result of this agreement, was able to create a favourable international atmosphere by reason of his political adroitness, and, in 1198, realised the ancient dream of the Dukes of Bohemia—that of creating a hereditary royal title. This privilege was bestowed upon Přemysl by the Pope himself, the Emperor Frederick II confirming it by the Golden Bull of Sicily of the year 1212, which regulated the relations between the new kingdom and the Empire. The dependence of Bohemia on the Emperors became henceforth purely a formality; in return, the kings of Bohemia had the right of intervening in the affairs of the German Empire, and of exercising a certain influence upon the neighbouring States. The Czech State, free from the threat of external interference, and consolidated within its own frontiers, entered upon a scheme of political expansion which was so assiduously followed by the last of the Přemyslides that their kingdom became a powerful factor in Central Europe; a factor whose influence was felt over the whole of Europe from the points of view of economics and politics.

The first steps taken to enlarge the authority of the kings of Bohemia were taken under Václav I (1230-1253), who profited by the extinction of the dynasty of the Babenbergs in neighbouring Austria to advance his title as a relative and to attach that country to his own family. His son, Přemysl-Otakar II (1253-1278), afterwards

united to Bohemia all the heritage of the Babenbergs and made of his possessions a powerful empire which extended from the Krkonoše (The Giant Mountains) to the Adriatic. The mineral riches of the country, as well as the fertility of the soil, attracted foreign colonists to Bohemia from all corners of Europe. Moreover, the fame of the Royal court, the tremendous economic and political projects formed by the Přemyslides, their plans for juridical reorganisation, attracted to Prague even Italian elements. In short, the brilliant intellectual level of Bohemia and the growing prestige of her kings, was such that the eyes of all Europe were turned to the kingdom. No less a person than Dante hailed Přemysl as the future liberator of Italy.

This attractive picture was not without its shadows. The kingdom of Bohemia extended its frontiers, but internally it was subject to grave changes of constitution, provoked by the tide of powerful international influences by which Bohemia was abruptly flooded in the XIII century. The feudalism which penetrated to Bohemia drew the Bohemia nobility towards the international society of Western Europe, but it deprived them, at the same time, of the spirit of national-

ity, and awoke in them so great a consciousness of power that, on more than one occasion, they defied the king, to the detriment of the whole country. The financial policy of the kings of Bohemia, which showed itself in the foundation of cities and the creation of mining enterprises, beyond doubt raised the country to a high level of economic power, but on the other hand, it favoured the immigration of the German elements to an extent which was dangerous to the interests of the nation. At length the Gothic culture impregnated the highest circles of society, but this, in certain respects, was to the detriment of the Czech interests, for that



Přemysl Otakar II.

culture consolidated the influence of the German language, which became the official tongue spoken at the royal court.

The unfortunate results of these internal changes made themselves felt in the international policies of the kings of Bohemia. Přemysl-Otakar II was well able to defend his domains against the assaults of the neighbouring Magyars, but in a conflict with Rudolf of Hapsburg,



*Charles IV
(in St. Vitus' Cathedral, Prague).*

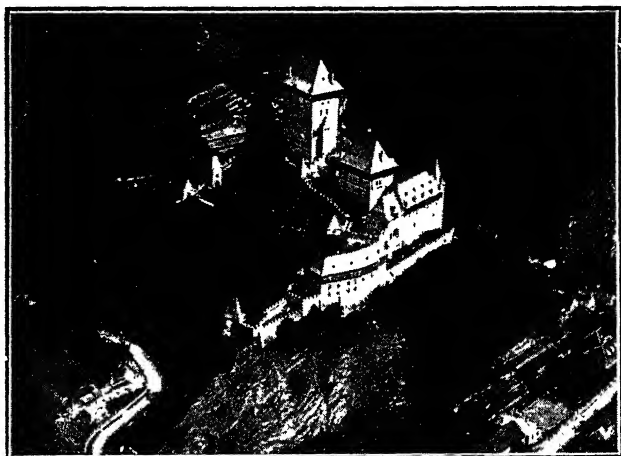
newly elected as German Emperor, he succumbed in 1278 at the battle of Moravské pole (Marchfeld), abandoned by the Czech nobility who refused to countenance the excessive development of the royal power. The Austrian countries became again an hereditary fief of the House of Hapsburg and the Bohemian State, reduced to its ancient frontiers, fell for a space of time under the influence of the German Empire, which forced it, by a policy of marriages, to attach itself definitely to its dynasty.

The son of Přemysl and the son-in-law of Rudolf of Hapsburg, Václav II (1278-1306), when he had disembarrassed himself of the regency and the depredations of Otto of Brandenburg, again withdrew Bohemia from the influence of the Hapsburgs and rapidly raised her to a high degree of prosperity. An excellent admini-

strator, Václav was also a far-sighted statesman and possessed great mental breadth. By exploiting the mineral riches of the country, he placed the Bohemian currency on a solid basis by the introduction of a new coin (the "groš" of Prague). Against the German hegemony, he sought for allies in the West, and, with this in view, entered into relations with the king of France. Seeing the expansion of Bohemia arrested by the Hapsburgs in the South he sought the means of enlarging his State on its Eastern side by placing upon his brows the crowns of Poland and Hungary. The possibility offered itself of the three non-German kingdoms being grouped under the sceptre of the Přemyslides in a powerful bloc

which would counterbalance in Central Europe, the power of the Emperors of Germany. The assassination of Václav II at Olomouc in 1306, however, extinguished at one and the same time the dynasty of the Přemyslides and the brilliant visions they had called up.

V. The disappearance of this secular native dynasty did not constitute more than a momentary interruption in the history of Bohemia of the traditions bequeathed by the Přemyslides, but nevertheless it signified, practically, the end of that Bohemian imperialism which hoped to create



Karlštejn Castle, Bohemia.

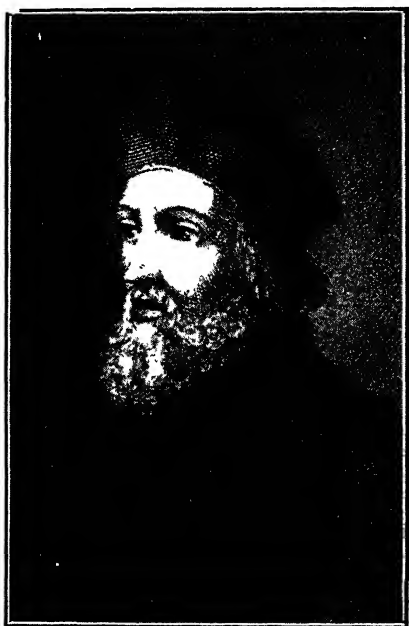
in Central Europe a great empire whose destinies would be controlled from Prague. The death of Václav II was followed, for the Czechs, by a period of serious perplexities. They knew not to whom they should offer the Bohemian throne. After the short reign of the inefficient Henry of Carinthia, the choice of the Bohemian lords fell upon the son of the Emperor, Henry IV, John of Luxemburg, (1310-1346), who, married to Elisabeth, the daughter of Václav II, founded a new dynasty. The essential merit of this dynasty lies in the fact that it assured to Bohemia a fecund contact with the Western world, notably with the brilliant French civilisation of the period. This was an excellent means of counteracting the influence of the German culture, which, during the reign of the later Přemyslides, became highly dangerous to the Bohemian State. Educated in France, the son and successor of John, Charles IV (1346-1378) brought to Bohemia the most perfected

methods of economic enterprise and of administration. Within the country, letters and arts entered upon a new era: in founding the University of Prague (1348), the first to be founded in Central Europe, he gave an autonomous intellectual life to the country. Under his influence, Prague became the metropolis without rival in the Empire, while the prudent wisdom of his rule made of Bohemia a garden in which the arts and letters flourished, and supplied a model which Central and Eastern Europe endeavoured to emulate. The political activities of Charles were of no less an importance for Bohemia. At the same time King of Bohemia and German Emperor, Charles was able to affix the seal to the work of the Přemyslides, his predecessors, and to found the independence of the Czech State on a basis of singular solidity. In raising the bishopric of Prague to the dignity of archbishopric (1344) he guaranteed to Bohemia, from the ecclesiastic point of view, her full independence of the Empire. By the Golden Bull of 1356, he prevented all subsequent intervention of the German Emperors in the internal affairs of the Czech State while in addition, by deciding that the king of Bohemia should be thenceforth a prince-elect, he gave to his successors the right of playing a rôle in the election of the Emperors.

If the reign of Charles IV marks, for all the reasons stated above, an important stage in the evolution of the Czech State, it also marks the beginning of a movement which holds an important place in the history of the Czech nation. The intellectual impetus which Charles gave to Bohemia gave rise spontaneously to a movement of remarkable ideas. A goodly number of people who found the circle of traditional conceptions too strict and limiting, armed themselves with the whip of criticism and entered upon a war with the social system of the time as represented by the Church of that period, a system which had hitherto been accepted by everyone as the authoritative standard of life. This movement received encouragement under Charles IV: several preachers (Conrad Waldhauser and Milič of Kroměříž) and prominent writers (Thomas Štítný and Mathias of Janov) had devoted themselves to the restoration of the basis of their religious life. But under Václav IV (1378-1419), son of Charles IV, the movement reached its culminating point and became, at the same time, a matter of world-wide importance, under the influence of a professor of the University of Prague, John Hus.

VI. Hus, adopting the doctrines of the English thinker, John Wycliff, preached the necessity of a religious reformation. He claimed that the Church would not be morally regenerated until she had repudiated the mundane character which she had, little by little, adopted, and until she returned to the simplicity of the early Christians and to the authority of the Scriptures. But that was not all. He made himself the champ-

ion of a fervent nationalism and the zealous propagator of intellectual culture in Bohemia. In this respect, his efforts form the culmination point of the great forward step made under Charles IV. Thanks to Hus the Czech language became fixed: it was discovered to be a delicate instrument of intellectual expression and was substituted for Latin; the general culture of Bohemia re-assumed its original national character. In setting himself in the same degree of ardour against the authority of the papacy—at that time severely shaken by schism—Hus entered into a conflict with the ecclesiastic powers. Finally, on the 6th of July, 1415, the Eocumenical Council of Constance before whom he had come to defend his doctrine, burnt him at the stake. His death, which the whole of the Czech nation regarded as an affront to themselves, provoked violent tumults in Bohemia. Some years later the wind of these tumults fanned into life an immense blaze: all the nation fought for liberty of conscience and for the new ideal of moral life. If it is true that in the history of each civilised nation an hour strikes when Fate calls upon it to fight for a better future for all humanity, then it can be said that the hour sounded for Bohemia in the Hussite times.



John Hus, the Reformer.

With the Hussite wars a special era dawned: the Czechs revolted against the rigid authority of the Church of Rome; they fought for liberty of conscience, and during the course of the centuries which followed, all the nations of Western Europe flung themselves successively into that struggle. Thanks to these wars, the Czech people became strongly conscious of themselves, the country threw off the veneer of Germanism which it owed to the German settlements, the nobility became one with the people, and Bohemia severed the political and cultural bonds which attached her to the German Empire.

On the death of Václav IV, the Czech nation, justly incensed, did not wish to accept the heir to the throne, Sigismund, who had approved of the condemnation of John Hus, and the Bohemian estates took in hand the administration of the country after having elected a revolutionary government which drew up new regulations in the spirit of the doctrines of the Master. Then, with a proudly lifted head, Bohemia

entered into a period of autonomous existence. The Bohemian "Warriors of God", led by the outstanding generals, John Žižka and Prokop the Bald, and supported by the unanimous enthusiasm of an entire nation fighting for a sublime ideal, defended their country and their convictions against the crusades launched against them by the whole of Europe. At length they forced their adversaries, at the Council of Basle of 1431, to enter into peace negotiations with them. Peace was concluded in 1436 on the basis of agreements called "Compacts" which recognised the essential principles of the religious regeneration for which the Hussites had fought. That peace was no more than an interlude in the struggle sustained by Bohemia against ecclesiastic authority. The Popes did not approve of the "compacts", and the Bohemian kings were placed



Mikuláš Aleš: John Žižka.

under the necessity of regulating the position of Hussite Bohemia in relations to a Catholic Europe.

Sigismund (1436-1437), who, after the defeat of the radical Taborites at the battle of Lipany (1434), at last succeeded in mounting the Bohemian throne (1436) died soon after his succession—in 1437—the country being at the time the prey of internal dissension. Bohemia, having thus lost her second dynasty, endeavoured to find a new one in the vortex of competitors for the throne. The heirs of the Luxemburgs, the Hapsburgs, disappeared after the short reign of Ladislav the Post-

humorous (1440-1457), and the difficult task of dispelling the shadows of the Hussite revolution was confided to a national king, George of Poděbrady (1457-1471).

The kingdom of Bohemia had emerged from the Hussite wars nationally consolidated and with an intact territory. But the royal authority



Mikuláš Aleš: George of Poděbrady.

had been greatly shaken by the revolutions; moreover, the nation was divided by quarrels of a social and religious nature; in addition, the nation no longer felt herself to be in accord with the rest of Europe either intellectually or politically. King George undertook, and with success, the task of raising the authority of the throne and of restraining eccentric religious and social tendencies. By adroit diplomacy he restored the former relations with Christian monarchs; he sought, at the same time, to group them in a sort of "Coalition of Peace", but his efforts

to reconcile Bohemia with Rome came to grief in the face Pope's uncompromising attitude. Hussite Bohemia thus existed in an ill-defined situation with regard to the Christian society of Western Europe. Only Peter Chelický, the founder of the "Union of Bohemian Brethren", founded on reformatory ideas of independent thought, had the courage to break openly with the Catholic Church. The differences which arose between King George and the Roman *Curia* on the question of the recognition of the Hussite "compacts" resulted in a new war between Bohemia and the Church. At the head of the second anti-Hussite crusade which was loosed against George of Poděbrady, was Mathias, king of Hungary, who advanced a claim to the Bohemian crown. Before his death, King George felt the necessity of reconciling his country with the rest of Europe and made the sacrifice of his family rights by recommending that the throne of Bohemia should be offered to the Catholic Jagellons, but the two princes of that Polish dynasty, Vladislav II (1471-1516) and Louis (1515-1526), were not of the calibre to carry out the difficult task undertaken by George. Under their feeble government the shadows of the Hussite revolution stood out in sharp definition. The nobility, enriched by the confiscation of Church property, became a decisive factor in the State; their new power transformed them into a oligarchy of privileged classes just at a time when, in the West, feudalism had been definitely brushed aside by the absolutism of the Renaissance. The nobility, in 1500, secured a codification of their rights in a document entitled "The Constitution of Vladislav", the first written code of Czech laws; the peasant class was again brought under the yoke, though formerly it had been freed by the Hussite revolution and, backed up by their vast estates, the nobles began to sap the power of the cities and the authority of the king. Moreover, new religious quarrels piercing the nation's breast, shook Bohemia at a time when the Jagellons, who also ruled over Hungary, were faced with the Turkish peril and had almost completely lost sight of the interests of their Bohemian kingdom.

VII. In the meanwhile a furious struggle was going on within the State between parties who endeavoured to seize supreme power at a time when incessant religious quarrels still further confused a situation already very complicated, and Bohemia suffered a new loss in the death of Louis, an event which took place in 1526 after the battle with the Turks at Mohač. Thus deprived of the natural successors to the throne, the choice fell upon Ferdinand, Archduke of Austria, in whose person Bohemia chose the last dynasty which was to reign over her—the Hapsburgs. Up to then the destinies of the nation had been entrusted to kings who had been forced above all to defend the country's independence and to encourage the national efforts of the population; with the Hapsburgs a very different spirit inspired the central power. In Bohemia, as well as in all the other countries where that ambitious dynasty was

able to assert its domination, imperialist tendencies soon entered into conflict with the principle of the national State, and that struggle—of which the whole of Europe met with an analogy at the beginning of the modern era—was the grave of Czech independence. While in the West of Europe absolute monarchy laid, at that time, the foundations of strongly united national States, in Bohemia it restrained the rights of the ruling orders. This, at the same time, robbed the country of all hopes of a liberal government. Absolute strangers to the spirit of the nation, indifferent to the vital needs of the Czech State, the Hapsburgs in their absolutism only wished to see in it a useful instrument to enable them to build a powerful empire in the heart of Europe.

The founder of the new dynasty, Ferdinand I (1526-1564), transferred the seat of his government to the more central Austria, and he endeavoured to create central administrations for all his possessions in the departments of finance, the army and external policy. Vienna was gradually substituted for Prague, to become at a future day, the pivot of a new great power founded in Central Europe. In the back-ground of this scheme can be seen foreshadowed the four-century-long struggle between the king and the nation, a conflict whose stake was political, religious and national liberty, and which characterised Czech history right up to the end of the World War.

During the course of the first century of the Hapsburg domination it was mainly religious questions which fomented the conflict between the people and their sovereigns. From the cultural point of view, Slav Bohemia at that epoch was drawn into the furious battle of ideas which divided the two worlds: the Roman Catholic world and the German Protestant world. She lost her national individuality, to which she had clung so tenaciously and of which she had given such remarkable proof at the time of the Hussite wars. The higher classes of society were attracted by the Catholic culture of the Renaissance, by the Hapsburgs and the courtiers whom they had attached to their suite in Bohemia; on the other hand, the middle and the lower classes sympathised with the spirit of the German reformation. The nation was thus, in a manner of speaking, divided at its roots, without taking into consideration the influences of foreigners, for at that time Bohemia was flooded by a new colonisation, both cultural and economic. In all this can be seen the fatal consequence of previous events—the energies of the country had been too severely taxed in the wars of the Hussites to enable them to sustain a cultural independence; and in this, too, can be seen one of the greatest causes of the very imminent overthrow and national decadence which followed.

After Luther's entry on the scene, an event which made of John Hus' quarrel with Rome a problem of European importance, the "Czech Her-

esy" was revived. Some sought a ground of agreement with Catholicism, but the most radical were swept onwards first by Lutherism and later by Calvinism. To an overwhelming majority the nation ranged itself alongside the radicals. The Hapsburgs, their rulers, were the foremost supporters of the counter-Reformation and they endeavoured by all the means in their power to counteract the efforts of the Czechs. Ferdinand I, as others before him had essayed, attempted to reconcile Bohemia with Rome, but he found himself faced with the opposition of almost the entire nation. Moreover the efforts he made to reduce the power of the nobles culminated in 1547, during the Smalkalde war, in an open revolt of the nation against the dynasty. Inefficiently led, the revolt ended in defeat for the revolutionaries. The victor, Ferdinand, broke the power of the cities and the other centres of the more radical among the population.

Maximilian II (1564-1576), refused to allow to the non-Catholic churches, who had grouped themselves as a "Czech Confession" with the purpose of founding a national church, the right of practising their respective religions. His successor, Rudolph II (1576-1610), transferred the seat of his government to Prague, but that circumstance did not draw him nearer to the Czechs. For all his personal proximity, he remained a stranger to their national aspirations. Moreover, he profited by his presence in the country to engage in a struggle, more violent than heretofore, against the non-Catholics. Directed this time by Papal nuncios, this struggle had for its arena more particularly the public administration of the country, the Royal domains and the vast possessions of the nobility. The revolt of Mathias, brother of Rudolph, who had been assured of the support of the Moravians, enabled the non-Catholics to extract from Rudolph in 1609 the "Letters of Majesty", but it soon became evident that the success of the non-Catholic majority was only illusory. Mathias (1610-1619) mounted the throne in his turn and the Catholic nobility, by their intrigues, succeeded in withdrawing from the non-Catholics the greater part of the liberties guaranteed by the "Letters of Majesty". The harsh methods employed by the Hapsburgs, and by the ecclesiastic dignitaries maintained by them, resulted after a long controversy in an open revolt of the whole nation against the foreign dynasty. After the imperial lieutenants had been thrown from the windows of Prague Castle in 1618, a delegation of the Bohemian Estates carried on the government in the name of the nation and ended by electing as King, Ferdinand of the Palatinate.

VIII. The uprising of Bohemia rapidly took on the proportions of an international problem. But, badly supported by their foreign allies, the Czechs were, after two years, defeated by the emperor at the battle of the White Mountain (1620). The victory furnished Ferdinand II (1620-

1637) and his successors with an occasion for suppressing by violence the whole nation. The nobles who had taken part in the revolt were executed, exiled or impoverished by wholesale confiscations; the religious, political and national liberties of the kingdom of Bohemia were strangled by the regime which was imposed on the country in 1627. The administration was confided to foreigners; by means of the Jesuits and dragoons, the people were forced to renounce their faith; the population



Max Švabinský: Jan Amos Komenský (Comenius).

had to submit to the whims of a foreign nobility who were devoid of all national feeling, of a nobility who ruled the estates confiscated from the ancient families of the country. The kingdom of Bohemia became, in a sense, no more than a colony governed from an unfriendly Vienna and it was the taxes levied on the Czech nation which allowed that city to develop to the prejudice of Prague. The horrors of the Thirty Years' War completed the cultural and economic ruin of Bohemia.

The Czech exiles, whose spiritual guide was the last Bishop of the Union of Bohemian Brethren, the celebrated pedagogue and philosopher, J o h n A m o s K o m e n s k ý (Comenius), endeavoured in vain with the aid of foreign friends, to wrest the kingdom of Bohemia from the yoke of the Hapsburgs. On the signing of the Treaty of Westphalia (1648) that kingdom was nothing more in the eyes of Vienna than a diplomatic pawn to exchange in return for concessions. At that time the pick of Czech intellect languished in exile. Through their mouthpiece, Komenský,

they called upon future generations to fight without cessation for the freedom of their country. Meanwhile Bohemia, under the absolute government of the Hapsburgs, underwent a period of eclipse such as no other civilised nation has ever experienced. Deprived of its most vigorous supporters, Czech culture declined and the Czech language, of old the only official language of Bohemia, disappeared from the offices, the schools and the churches, from the conversation of the upper and middle classes, and survived only in the speech of the common folk in the country districts.

In seeking from purely selfish motives, and to the detriment of the ethnical and political interests of the country, the favours of the reigning dynasty, the Czech nobility which remained in the country were traitors to the great national ideal. In that disloyalty can be seen the true cause of the eclipse which the nation suffered. From that time forward the history of Bohemia ceased to be the history of her kings and her nobles. Her history became no more than the history of an enslaved people who only kept alive the national tradition in their memories of their former political independence. That nation which three earlier centuries had centred on itself the attention of all Europe and by its energy had carried human thought to its highest summits, seemed now condemned to irredeemable ruin and its name seemed about to be erased from history.

The terrible social and intellectual decadence had, it is true, sapped the foundations of the Czech nation, but the State rights of an independent Czech kingdom had not as yet been affected. Not until the XVIII century was the work of destruction consummated. By the Pragmatic sanction granted by the Czech Estates in 1721 to the last male descendant of the Hapsburgs, Charles VI (1711-1740) Bohemia was enchained along with other possessions of the House of Austria. The first Queen of Bohemia, Maria Theresa (1740-1780), identified herself with the absolutist ideas of the period and at the same time attacked the basis of the independence of the Czech State. She deprived Bohemia of her proper administration and forced her into a strict union with the other possessions of the crown, which became now a single State, solidly united. Systematically carried out, the work of Germanisation and bureaucratic centralisation 'attached the kingdom of Bohemia to Vienna by chains which daily became heavier' so that that State began to disappear from the map of Europe: it became no more than a simple province within the Empire of the Hapsburgs. The economic and civil reforms of Joseph II (1780-1790), the first ruler of the new dynasty of Hapsburg-Lorraine, reforms inspired by the "enlightened" spirit of the times, brought some respite to the misery of the labouring classes, but were powerless to raise the intellectual level of a nation deprived of its schools and leaders.

IX. Nevertheless, during those days of absolute abasement, a new life

began to germinate in the depth of the Czech national soul. The breath of liberty which, in the second half of the XVIII century, blew from France across the whole of Europe, struck a still-sensitive chord in the ancient national spirit of the Czechs. Thanks to certain men possessed of a rare capacity for self immolation and fittingly named the "Awakeners of the Nation", the struggle sustained of old in Bohemia for national culture and political independence was recommenced with superhuman energy. At the outset this struggle was restricted to the intellectual domain. In taking as a jumping-off point those traditions piously preserved in certain of the anti-reformation districts of Bohemia and in remote parts of Slovakia by a small number of priests of a resolute patriotism, the Czech "Awakeners" devoted themselves, with the encouragement of a group of enlightened nobles, to the task of rekindling among the masses of the population the flames of national sentiment, and thus to give birth to a new era. With an indefatigable ardour and love they cultivated the Czech language, founded patriotic societies and museums, and attracted at length the attention of Europe to their unhappy nation, fallen into oblivion.

So long as the all-powerful Metternich held the destinies of the Austrian State in his hands, the work of rebuilding the Czech nation proceeded but slowly; in Austria and in the whole of Europe, a reactionary spirit was in the ascendancy. In addition, the Hapsburgs resolutely suppressed all aspirations towards liberty which were manifested by their subjects; the component countries of their domain had formally been regrouped in 1804 in a new empire. In 1848 only, when the whole of



Tábor, a town in Bohemia.

Europe, following the example of France, broke the chains of an archaic absolutism, was Austria forced to accord certain constitutional liberties to the nationalities whom she oppressed. From that time the movement for the rebuilding of the Czech nation expanded in an atmosphere sensibly more favourable to its growth. From the intellectual domain the struggle extended to the political world and all classes of the nation began to entertain hopes for the restitution of national independence.

During the first phase of the newly undertaken political struggle, the leaders of the Czech nation with Francis Palacký at their head, sought to ensure the evolution and development of their country within the general scheme of the empire of the Hapsburgs, an empire which they hoped to see transformed into a federation of autonomous, ethnographic groups. But, if the Emperor, Francis Joseph I (1848-1916), and his Vienna governments promised in times of crises to recognise, but at some future date, the historic rights of the Czechs to their independence, in reality they worked by every means in their power to deprive certain of the nationalities within the empire of their rights. Little by little this breach of faith convinced the Czechs that they could no longer seriously think of associating the fate of their country with the destiny of Austria. After a brief attempt at a constitutional government, undertaken as a result of the outbreaks of 1848, the Emperor returned to a regime of stony absolutism and endeavoured by means of a German bureaucracy to make of the Austrian States a centralised Empire dominated by the German spirit. This programme of centralisation became the fixed idea of Austrian statesmen, even when they were concerned with the alteration of the constitution. For it, in 1867, they substituted the idea of dualism. In place of a confederation of States like that demanded by the Czechs, they created a dual monarchy: the Germans and the Hungarians, sharing the domination over other ethnological groups, and in concert with the new German Empire, working at the creation of a vast German monarchy whose imperialist tendencies rapidly became a menace to the peace of the whole world. This political rearrangement, so fatal for the Czechs, placed the Slovak branch of the nation in an even more deplorable situation. The Slovaks found themselves from that time at mercy of the Hungarians who forced upon them a regime of unprecedented oppression, a regime which sought completely to detach the Slovak branch of the nation from the Czech branch and to Magyarise it from the double point of view of intellectual and political life. Austria-Hungary which appeared to foreign eyes as the firmest supporter of peace in Europe, was in actual fact no more than a vast gaol in which, in an atmosphere of continual brutality and of endless crises, the oppressed nationalities sought vainly to establish their rights.

Trained by F. L. Rieger, the political leaders of the Czech nation abandoned at this time their programme of federation with Austria

and devoted themselves with ceaseless, ever-increasing energy, to the defence of the State rights of the Czech nation. In the struggle for the restoration of their independence they were supported by the ardent enthusiasm of the entire nation. In 1871 a last effort was made to come to an understanding with the Hapsburg Empire. This supreme effort failed. Henceforth there was no longer any hope of reconciling the nation to Austria and to the Hapsburg dynasty. The political leaders of the country, in complete accord with all its intellectual circles, devoted them-



Dr. František Ladislav Rieger.



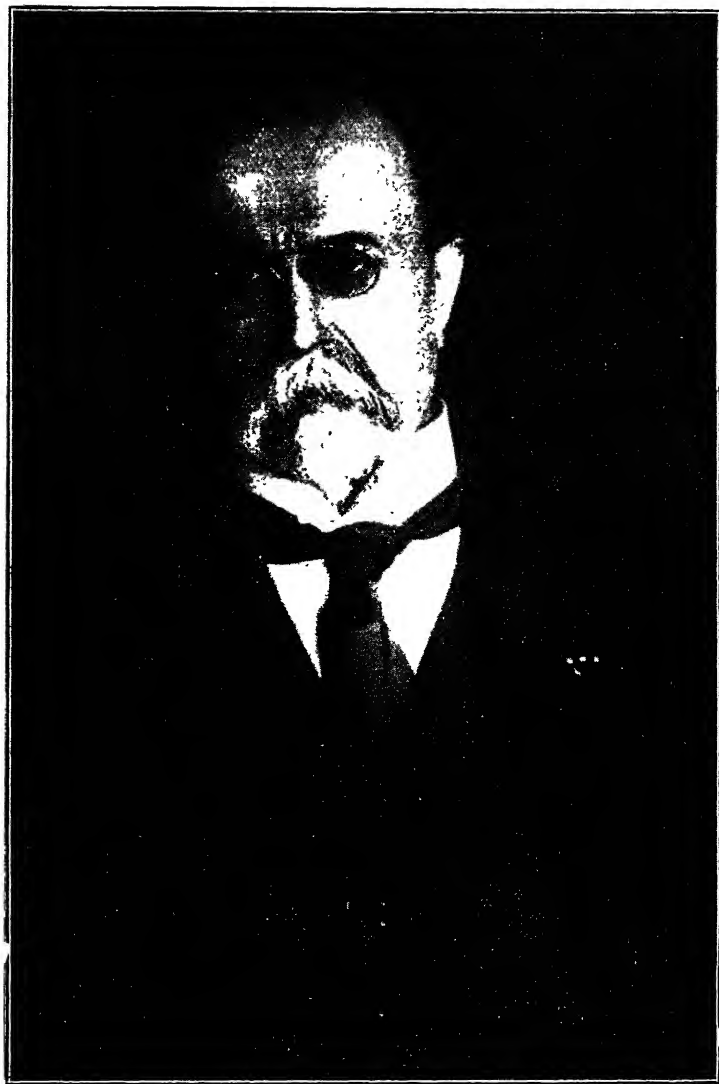
František Palacký.

selves to fighting the centralistic governments for increased civil and lingual rights, to maintaining the desire for liberty among the people, and of preparing them morally and economically for the coming struggle for the rights of their State—rights which had never been surrendered. Politically impotent, the nation sought means of consolidating its position in the intellectual domain. By the vigorous impulse imparted to the Arts and to Science, by the technical progress which they supported, by the remarkable economic effort they put forward, the Czechs sought to repair, out of their own resources, the disaster of the White Mountain, and at the same time, to gain by these stupendous efforts, the sympathies of the entire civilised world.

X. The destined hour foreseen by the leaders of the country, Palacký and Rieger, sounded at length, when the World War broke out, beyond doubt unleashed by the Central empires. During the course of the conflict the Czechoslovak nation girded its loins for a decisive encounter with the Hapsburgs. All the Czechoslovaks scattered over the face of the

earth grouped themselves in a powerful revolutionary organisation. Immediately war was declared, Czechoslovaks living abroad enlisted as volunteers in the Allied armies. The Czech soldiers, compelled to fight against their liberators on the Austrian fronts, moved over *en masse* to the "enemy" in order to form legions and fight side by side with the Allies. At Paris a Czechoslovak National Council was constituted under the direction of MM. M a s a r y k and B e n e š, who had secretly fled from Austrian persecution. The Council became the central organisation of the national resistance and it inaugurated auxiliary agencies in all the Allied countries. The Czechoslovak Legions became, in time, independent armies; they fought on all the Allied fronts and contributed a good share, notably in Russia, to the common victory. Simultaneously, within the Austrian-Hungarian Empire, the nation prepared for its enfranchisement, by a process of passive resistance fomented by a secret organisation of conspirators, the "Maffia", which worked in complete harmony with the revolutionaries abroad.

The resolute effort which the whole of the nation made to regain its liberty resulted, while the war was still being waged, in the rights of the Czechoslovaks to independence being recognised by the Allies. Finally on the 28th of October, 1918, the nation itself snapped by a bloodless revolution, the chains of centuries which had been imposed on it by the Hapsburg dynasty. A new era had been opened in the history of the nation: the Czechoslovak Republic had been founded.



T. G. Masaryk, President of the Czechoslovak Republic.

THE RESURRECTION OF CZECHOSLOVAKIA

The problem of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy came in its full extent before the notice of the world at large on the outbreak of the World War. An immediate cause of the War was a vital question relating to a large part of the territory of the Monarchy: it was the question as to whether or not the advance of the movement towards Yugoslav unity would come to a halt at the frontiers of the ancient empire on the Danube. Already before the War there were many statesmen who held the opinion that the problem of the Monarchy was in need of settlement. But the majority of them seemed to consider that the Monarchy, although weakened by internal dissensions, could still continue to exist as long as it did not suffer any territorial reductions. The Powers of the Entente entered the War without any clear idea of the means whereby to solve the questions of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy. Western Europe, Great Britain and France, long regarded Germany as the main enemy and left Russia, who had to bear the main weight of the campaign on the Eastern front, to deal with the problems of Germany's ally, Austria-Hungary. But Russia, true to its old policy, had its eyes fixed on the Balkans and the Orthodox Balkan Slavs and saw in the War a convenient opportunity finally to secure possession of Constantinople and the Dardanelles. As regards Austria-Hungary Russia had no programme.

Evidently Russia would have been satisfied with the incorporation of Bosnia-Herzegovina and a part of Dalmatia in a Greater Serbia, the annexation by herself of Eastern Galicia, the inclusion of the rest of Galicia in an autonomous Poland, and by a guarantee to the remaining Slav peoples in the Monarchy of a greater or less degree of self-government.

At this stage of affairs there was no real justification for the excessive optimism with which the Czech population looked towards Russia. It held firmly to the hope that nothing more was necessary than that the Czech soldiers in the Austro-Hungarian forces should desert to the Serbs and Russians. The Czech population particularly believed in the victory of Russia when the Russians occupied Galicia and Bukovina, besieged the Austrian fortress of Przemyśl, and advanced as far as the Carpathians. Most Czechs thought that the Russians would reach Bohemia and establish a Czech Kingdom under a Russian Governor in close connection with the Russian Empire. Only a few politicians were of opinion that it was not enough merely to adopt a waiting attitude and that a determined attempt should be made to inform foreign countries as to the real sentiments and expectations of the Czech people. Professor Masaryk was one of the very few who from the beginning did not believe in a Russian victory. He wished to arouse interest in the Czech question and the problem of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy among the Western Powers and particularly in Great Britain. He sought means to enter into relations

with the statesmen of the Entente, and with the help of his friends he succeeded in doing so.

With this object in view he made several journeys abroad. From one of them, undertaken in December 1914 to Italy, he decided not to return to Bohemia. Having gained knowledge of his activities, the Austro-Hungarian Government took steps to put an end to them, but Masaryk was duly warned by friends and from the spring of 1915 remained in Switzerland. Meanwhile his friends in Prague formed a secret revolutionary club which later was called the "Maffie". In agreement with Professor



*Dr. Eduard Beneš,
Minister of Foreign Affairs.*



*Milan Štefánik,
the first Minister of War.*

Masaryk, the Maffie made arrangements for further politicians to undertake journeys abroad: in May 1915 the Agrarian deputy Josef Dürich was sent and Dr. Beneš left in September 1915. At a meeting held in Geneva on July 6th, 1915, in commemoration of the quincentenary of the burning at the stake of John Huss, Professor Masaryk delivered a public speech in which he declared that between Austria and the Czech people—the heirs of the Hussite Reformation—there could be no reconciliation. On November 14th in the same year the Czechoslovak Foreign Committee, in a public announcement agreed upon in company with the Prague Maffie, declared war, in the name of the Czechs and Slovaks, on the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, and thereby took the side of the Entente. At the beginning of 1916 the Foreign Committee was changed into the National Council of the Czech Lands with its headquarters in Paris; branches were gradually formed in the various countries of the Entente. In due course it was recognized as the head representative

abroad of the Czechoslovak people in their political and military efforts. The first task of the National Council was the organisation of the Czechoslovak resistance, both military and diplomatic. The military resistance, which was founded on the preceding organisations of the Czech and Slovak volunteers in the French and Russian armies, won its first considerable success when the Tsar, on April 21st, 1916, approved the plan of releasing the Slav prisoners of war in Russia. In the diplomatic field the first notable success was the receiving of Professor Masaryk by the French Premier, M. Briand, on February 3rd, 1916, and the publication of the official *communiqué* which recorded the interview and the sympathies of the French Government towards the Czechoslovak revolutionary programme. The most important success, however, in this field was won by Dr. Eduard Beneš, the secretary general of the National Council, when through the instrumentality of the chief secretary of the French Foreign Ministry, mention was made in the reply of the Entente on January 10th, 1917, to President Wilson's request for a statement of the Allies' peace aims, that one of these aims was the emancipation of the Czechoslovaks from foreign overlordship. This reply showed that the policy of the Western Powers in regard to the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy was slowly beginning to change. Yet many months were to pass before the Entente Governments fully accepted the idea of a complete dismemberment of the Habsburg dominions: they still hoped for the preservation of the Monarchy with a view to concluding with it a separate peace so that Germany could be isolated and surrounded. But this would have meant the acceptance merely of autonomy by the subject peoples of the Habsburg Monarchy. On November 21st, 1916, however, the Emperor Francis Joseph I died and his successor, the Emperor Charles, did not show the same liking for the German military tutelage nor even the same confidence in Germany's ability to win the War as the old Emperor had shown. He inclined to the view that a separate peace might enable him to preserve both his dynasty and its hereditary domains.

The Russian revolution of March 13th, 1917, changed the Tsardom into a democratic republic and this naturally had an influence on the internal political affairs of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy. Surrounded by a group of members of the entourage of the former Heir to the Throne, the young Emperor resolved to break with the war policy represented by the General Staff at Těšín (Teschen) and to adopt a home policy involving a greater measure of parliamentary government. With the dropping of the war policy ended the oppressive police régime and censorship. In the Reichsrat which assembled on May 30th, 1917, the Czech deputies were organized in the Czech Union which had been formed on November 1916. The public, however, did not place much confidence in this organization which had compromised itself at the

beginning of 1927 by a proclamation directed, at the instigation of the Austrian Foreign Minister, Count Czernin, against the Czechoslovak action abroad and by its participation in the coronation ceremony of Charles at Budapest. Hence arose a popular movement which led to the publication on May 17th, 1917, of a manifesto signed by Czech authors who demanded that the Czech Union should support the policy of the Czechoslovaks working abroad. On the occasion of the re-opening of the Vienna Reichsrat, the Czech nation declared, in the

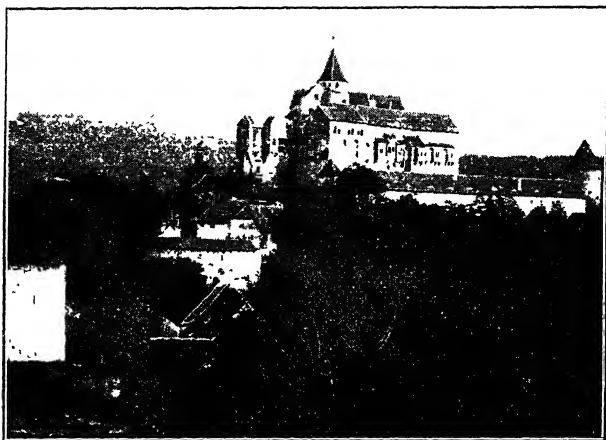


*General Maurice Janin,
Commander-in-Chief of Czechoslovak
Legions during the War.*



*General Stanislav Čeček,
one of the Commanders of Czechoslovak
Legions in Russia.*

words of the manifesto, that it wished "to bring about a union of all the branches of the Czechoslovak people, not forgetting the Slovak branch forming with the Czechs of the historical Czech lands a single entity". On the other hand, the manifesto declared that the independent State should be created within the framework of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy and with the preservation of the Hapsburg dynasty. In this way a compromise was made between the old constitutional programme and the new political ideals of the Czechoslovak revolution, but despite this element of compromise the manifesto of May 30th, 1917, constitutes a turning point in the home political life during the World War. Although the efforts of the Czechoslovaks working abroad were not completely approved by the legitimate representatives of the home politics who preferred a constitutional programme, the direct opponents of these efforts were obliged for the first time to make a concession to the popular movement which urged the acceptance of the ideals of



Pernštýn Castle, Moravia.

Czechoslovak freedom. Henceforward such opponents were to make frequent further concessions until no other course was left open but to accept as their own the revolutionary ideals of Czechoslovak independence.

The next few months—up till the late spring of 1918—were occupied, in the relations between the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy and the Entente, by endeavours to conclude a separate peace with the Monarchy and to arrive at an autonomist solution of its internal national difficulties. In the spring of 1918, however, the Powers of the Entente came almost simultaneously to the conclusion that the policy of a separate peace with the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy was not what was required. They recognized that the War could not end in a victory for the Allies unless they attacked the Hapsburg Monarchy as being the weakest point on the enemy side. About the same time as this, the military organizations of the Slav exiles from Austria-Hungary were winning their first considerable successes. By a decree of the French President, dated December 16th, 1917, a Czechoslovak army had been formed on the French front, whilst another was created on the Italian front by an agreement, signed on April 21st, 1918, between Italy and the Czechoslovak National Council. The Czechoslovak detachments in Russia, after gaining their first laurels at Zborov (July 2, 1917), were a factor with which the Great Powers counted in making their military plans. The favourable political situation now carried the Czechoslovak revolution-

*Orava Castle,
Slovakia.*



ary movement from one diplomatic success to another. The Czechoslovak National Council at Paris was recognized by the Great Powers. The Czechoslovak forces fighting with the Allies were recognized as Allied armies. Treaties were concluded to regulate the relations between Czechoslovaks and the Allied Governments, between the Czechoslovak forces and the Allied military authorities, and included obligations regarding the political aims of the Czechoslovak revolutionary exiles.

Meanwhile a change occurred in the military situation. The attack of the Central Powers who, after the collapse of the Russian front, had withdrawn troops to the Western front in order to strike the decisive blow, was repulsed both in France and in Italy. In the middle of July the Allies took the offensive. The German armies on the Western front began to waver, and their losses could no longer be made up, in consequence of a lack of reserves. At the end of September the Allied forces in the Balkans forced Bulgaria out of the War and a month later Turkey was obliged to surrender unconditionally. At the same time the splendid German positions, which bore the names of heroes

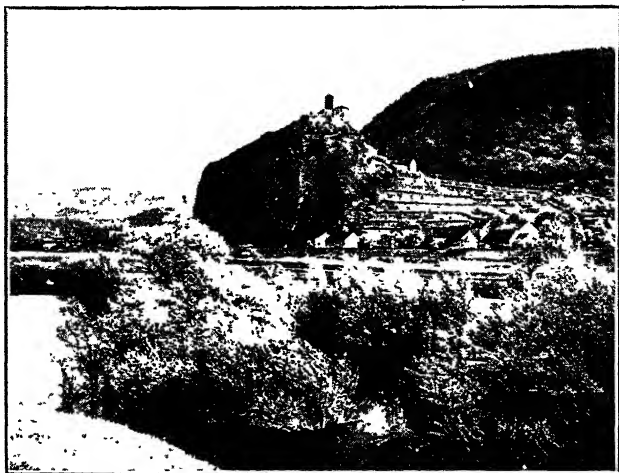
from old German mythology, yielded to the pressure of the Allied armies, at the side of which and under the command of which the Czechoslovak detachments won their laurels (at Terron and Vouzières in France in October: in June on the Piave, in September at Doss' Alto, and in October again on the Piave in Italy). The German General Staff was now unnerved and decided to appeal, together with Austria, to President Wilson for an armistice and for peace on the basis of the famous Fourteen Points.

Meanwhile in Czech domestic politics the battle had been won for the recognition of the ideals of the Czech revolutionary movement. On January 6th, 1918, a declaration was issued demanding a sovereign and democratic State bounded by the frontiers of the Czech Lands and the Slovak territory, and despite the provisos with which the adherents of the old political theories surrounded this manifesto, it was accepted not only at home but also in Vienna where no one was so foolish as not to realize that it had nothing in common with the aims of the Monarchy and the dynasty. Further declarations, such as the memorable oath of April 13th, 1918, and the May manifestations on the occasion of the quinquagenary celebrations in memory of the founding of the National Theatre in Prague, strengthened still more the policy of active co-operation with the Czechoslovaks abroad. In particular the May manifestations in Prague together with the April manifestations at Rome in connection with the Congress of Oppressed Peoples showed that the aims of the Slav and Latin exiles from the Monarchy were supported by the representatives of the political life of the Austro-Hungarian peoples and by whole nations. The establishment of the Czechoslovak National Committee in Prague on July 15th, 1918, was in complete agreement with the political purposes of the exiles and prepared the way for a State revolution in the Czech Lands.

At this time, when the German Supreme Command determined to exert pressure on Vienna and Berlin to conclude peace at the earliest possible moment, attempts were revived in Vienna to solve the Austro-Hungarian problem by granting autonomy to the Austrian nationalities. Exhausted by the War, the Monarchy now hoped that it might thereby obtain peace terms allowing of its further existence. If the step had been taken a month earlier, this might have happened. The last hour of the Monarchy struck when, in his manifesto of October 16th, 1918, the Emperor declared that Austria was to be transformed suddenly into a Union of Federal States. The Monarchy's peace offer was rejected by the rebelling nations and also by the Entente. In his reply of October 18th, 1918, President Wilson intimated to the Monarchy that it would have to negotiate directly with the Czechoslovak and South Slav revolutionary leaders.

Under these circumstances the home political representatives organ-

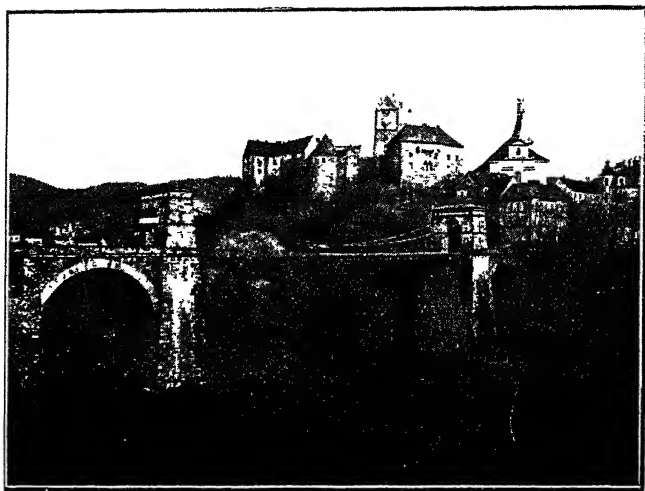
ized in the National Committee met at Geneva the representatives of the Czech revolutionary exiles who on October 14th, 1918, had formed in Paris their provisional Government. Such was the confusion in the minds of the Auscrian rulers that they furnished the Czech politicians with passports allowing them to travel to Switzerland so that they could come to an agreement with the representatives of the Czech exiles. Scared by the shadow of the Russian revolution and fearing



Střekov Castle, Bohemia.

Bolshevism, they hoped that on the neutral soil of Switzerland there was a possibility of inducing the Czech home and foreign politicians not to sever the age-long bonds. But at Geneva the two groups of Czech representatives were both agreed that these bonds ought to be severed in compliance with the spirit and the letter of the Washington declaration issued on October 18th, 1918 by President Masaryk.

Whilst the negotiations were being conducted in Geneva, the State revolution materialized in Prague on October 28th, 1918. It was carried out smoothly and without bloodshed. Encouraged by the Austro-Hungarian reply to President Wilson's Note of October 18th, and having made an agreement previously with the military forces, the National Committee took over the civil power and during the night of October 29th/30th, 1918, it seized the military power by a determined stroke. In



Loket, Bohemia.

the course of a few days the National Committee secured the allegiance of all the territories inhabited by the Czech people, of the mixed territories, and a little later of Slovakia, as a result of negotiations conducted in Paris by the emigrés abroad represented by the provisional Government. With the convocation of the National Assembly, the formation of the first Czechoslovak Government, the establishment of the Czechoslovak Republic in the spirit of the agreements arrived at in Geneva, and the election of Professor T. G. Masaryk as the first President, the revolutionary provisional Government was incorporated in the first Government of the new State.

The origin of the Czechoslovak Republic was due to the World War. Two spheres of thought were in conflict in that struggle: on the one side was feudal, theocratic, centralizing absolutism, and on the other were the democratic States, fighting for the realization of the national idea. Victory was on the side of the democracies and of the political claims of the exiles from Austria-Hungary. One of the most valuable gifts of fate to the young State consists in the fact that it has so far been able to preserve the continuity of its foreign policy with the moral and political principles which governed its revolutionary movement. The merit of this belongs to two men who, at the very beginning of the Czechoslovak independence abroad, Fate placed in responsible po-



Cheb, Bohemia.

sitions as leaders, and who, since the establishment of the Czechoslovak Republic, have controlled the most important State functions. These two leaders—President T. G. Masaryk and the Minister for Foreign Affairs, Dr. Eduard Beneš—are united not only by the affinity of their political principles but also by the bonds of sincere personal friendship. (The third leader of the movement abroad for Czechoslovak independence was the first Minister of War, General Milan Štefánik, who perished in tragic fashion on his return to his liberated country.)

Thanks to a series of fortunate circumstances and particularly to the well-conducted revolutionary movement that resulted in its establishment, the Czechoslovak State was present as a regularly constituted international unit at the Peace Conference which sat in Paris in January, 1919. The Czechoslovak delegates represented rich territories that showed signs of recovering rapidly from the evil effects of the War; their authority was based on recognition by the Allied Powers which already were virtually agreed as to the frontiers of the future State.

During the War the Entente Powers recognized the right of the Czechoslovak people to live in a State of its own within the historical boundaries of its territory, and now it was a question of realizing the promises, then made, in the Peace Treaties. The main point was to

maintain the integrity of the historical territory of the Czechoslovak people against the claims put forward by the Austrian Germans, the Magyars and the Poles. Thanks to the favourable circumstances created by the War, the negotiations regarding the Czechoslovak territorial demands were conducted on the whole smoothly at the Peace Conference. Fulfilling its older obligations, the French Government declared on December 20th, 1918, that until other decision was made by the Peace Conference it recognized the historical frontier of the Czech lands as the frontier between Austria and Czechoslovakia; the British and Italian Governments adhered to the French declaration in a Note dated January 7th, 1919. The Peace Treaties of Versailles and Saint Germain gave to this temporary measure a definitive character. The same course was adopted in connection with the Slovak territory. The vague nature of the provisions of the Belgrade armistice and the armistice concluded at Villa Giusti provided an opportunity for a temporary frontier delimitation to be fixed at the earliest possible moment and after the settlement of the military conflict between the Czechoslovak Government and the Hungarian Bolshevik Government and on the basis of the provisions of the Peace Treaty of Trianon this boundary line was fixed as the permanent frontier. Thus at the Peace Conference the historical boundaries of the Czech lands were adopted with insignificant additions of territory to the advantage of the new State. From Germany the Czechoslovak Republic received the district of Hlučín, the population of which is Czech, and from Austria the Valtice territory and the railway junction at České Velenice. From the former Hungarian territory was added Carpathian Ruthenia which at the request of its population was joined to Czechoslovakia in the form of an autonomous territory. The Polish territorial claims which related mainly to the Duchy of Těšín (a part of the territory of the Crown of Bohemia since the year 1327) caused a long and bitter dispute between Poland and Czechoslovakia. During the Soviet attack on Poland, however, a decision was made by the Conference of Ambassadors on July 28th, 1920, whereby the disputed territory was divided in such a manner as to safeguard the vital interests of the Czechoslovak Republic. The local dispute over Javorina arose out of the preceding decision and was peacefully settled on the basis of a judgement by the Permanent Court of International Justice.

In addition to the Czechoslovak territorial claims the Peace Conference solved a number of economic and financial problems touching the interests of the Republic. The problems of transport policy were settled on the whole favourably, but less favourable were the decisions contained in the financial clauses of the Peace Treaties. The claim of Czechoslovakia for reparations, as from October 28th, 1918, was recognized but it was laid down that all the Succession States should make

a payment for their emancipation, take over a part of the pre-War debt of the Monarchy and accept the obligation to pay to the Reparations Commission an amount equivalent to the value of the State properties and of the properties of the Imperial House which had come into their possession.

On the legal and political basis created by the Peace Conference and expressed in the peace treaties the young Republic has developed its



Levoča, Slovakia.

foreign policy. The consolidation of the State in the Central European and European structure was the principal aim pursued.

The tendency towards consolidation that characterizes the foreign policy of Czechoslovakia manifested itself also in home politics. The work accomplished in this sphere can be rightly judged only by future generations who alone will be able to apportion just praise to those who have dedicated their whole lives to the organization of the new State.

3. POLITICAL ORGANISATION

THE INTERNAL POLICY OF THE REPUBLIC. A GENERAL VIEW OF ITS DEVELOPMENT

Since the 28th October, or the 14th November 1918, when the so-called Revolutionary National Assembly met, composed of 270 representatives of all Czech and Slovak parties, and elected the first Czechoslovak government with Dr. Kramář at the head, nine governments have succeeded each other in the Republic. If, in foreign policy, each of them represents a separate stage of international political development, in internal policy they have followed a very simple and consistent line, arising from the fundamental necessities for the existence of the young State, which grew up in the abnormal times after the revolution and was made up of parts which up to that time had developed under different regimes. (The historical provinces on the one hand, Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia on the other.)

The government of Dr. Karel Kramář (14th November 1918 to 7th July 1919) was supported by the whole Revolutionary National Assembly, which was made up of representatives of all Czech and Slovak parties, and was therefore a government of voluntary cooperation by all sections of the nation, which created the state, and felt the need and duty of giving it a firm democratic basis. Its main tasks, which it accomplished with success, were those of ensuring the whole territory of the Republic, detaching it from Austria, especially in matters of economics and currency (to this stage belong Rašín's measures of February, 1919), ensuring food for the population, which had been endangered in the period immediately preceding (here belong the government food purchases abroad), and ensuring the first basis of economic as well as political democracy in the state, by the passing into law of a democratic suffrage for local elections, by passing the first Land Reform Act, by introducing the eight hour day, and by some other social political laws. By carrying out these reforms the first National Assembly and the first government realised the ideals by which the whole Czechoslovak revolution abroad had been inspired, and secured itself against the revolutionary wave of socialist extremism coming from the East.

The first Tusar Government (8th July 1919 to 25th May, 1920) corresponded to the wishes of the population as expressed in the municipal and local elections held on the 15th June 1919. It was composed of Social Democrats, Czech Socialists, Republicans, and Slovaks. Working with the Revolutionary National Assembly, it continued the efforts of the first government for the financial consolidation of

the State (the Capital Levy was passed in April 1920), passed some social legislation (Law for Profit Sharing among miners) and proceeded further with the Land Reform. Its greatest work, however, was the elaboration of a democratic Constitution, on the basis of which general elections were held for the Diet and Senate from the 18th to the 25th June, 1920, thus ending the era of the Revolutionary National Assembly.

The National Assembly which emerged from the general election,



*Dr. Alois Rašín,
the first Minister of Finance.*



*Dr. Karel Kramář,
leader of the National Democratic
Party.*

was composed of 199 Czechoslovak, 72 German, and 10 German-Hungarian members, was faced with the task of working on the democratic foundation laid by the Revolutionary National Assembly for the consolidation and development of the state, for the recuperation of its general economic condition, for ensuring the cultural and economic development of all classes, and especially for the solution of the next most weighty problem after the financial rehabilitation of the State, the question of administration, imposed by the variety of forms of administration in the historical and Hungarian provinces, and for the reconciliation of those minorities in the State who did not willingly find themselves within the territories of the state, and who entered the National Assembly with the reservation dictated by the right of self determination. These problems were naturally only capable of solution step by step.

The Second Tusar Government (25th May 1920 to 15th September 1920), which, in view of the fact that the socialist parties

secured half of all the votes, and that outside this camp the Republican party was the strongest, was reestablished on a coalition of these two groups, set itself the task of continuing the social political work of its predecessor. The continual acute crisis in the socialist party, which here led to the detachment of the radically Bolshevik wing, allowed it, however, no very long activity. Prime Minister Tusar, together with the other social democratic ministers, sent in his resignation in the first half of September, 1920. It was accepted on September 15th, 1920, and as no Czechoslovak majority was possible without the Social Democrats, who had 74 members, a government of officials was introduced.

The Government of Officials, under Dr. Černý (15th September, 1920 to 27th December, 1921) retained only Dr. Beneš and Dr. Hotowetz out of the former cabinet, and was supported in Parliament by all Czech parties. It concentrated all its efforts on consolidating the authority of the State, and on breaking down the revolutionary attempts of the radical elements in the Social Democratic Party, composed at first of the left wing of the Social Democrats, and afterwards of the Czechoslovak Communist Party. In this task it was completely successful. Its other tasks, particularly the dissolution of the Grain Control, and the execution of Dr. Engliš's plan of taxation, presented great difficulties, and were only accomplished after great efforts. These difficulties were the reason why the Government of Officials, as soon as the Social Democrats had regained some degree of consolidation after the departure of the Communists, was in its turn succeeded by a parliamentary government.

This new Government, with Dr. Beneš at the head (27th September, 1921 to 5th October, 1922) was at first supported by the so-called All National Coalition, that is by a coalition of all the leading Czechoslovak parties, and commanded 166-180 votes as against 105 which were at the disposal of the Minorities and the Communists in opposition. The principal programme of the new government was consolidation and stabilisation in all branches, which was carried out in spite of considerable difficulties. These difficulties were found in the social situation in February 1922 (Strike of miners. In May metal workers' strike.) and in foreign political events (in October 1921 occurred the Ex-emperor Charles's second putsch). An especial success was gained in the final stabilisation of the Czechoslovak crown.

The following Government of Švehla (7th October, 1922 to November, 1925), was also a government of the national coalition of the five Czechoslovak parties, and carried on the work of consolidation begun by the previous government. Their success was shown not only in the gradual reduction of the deficit of the state Budget, but in a reduction of the coal tax and of the capital levy, and in the

fact that they were able to maintain the recuperative process in industry and agriculture, maintain the firm rate of the crown, and finally to carry the great Social Reform Law, providing for the social insurance of workmen and independent persons. On the other hand they did not succeed, by any agreement between the parties, in solving the question of the agrarian duties, which was a vital necessity for agricultural interests and especially for the Republican Party. In June 1925 the difficulties raised by this question were indeed overcome by the introduction of the so-called "sliding duties", but the difficulties were thus merely evaded. The agricultural elements did not conceal their opinion that this was a permanently unsatisfactory solution, whereas the socialist parties on the other hand refused any further concession. A tension came into existence, which resulted in the dissolution of the National Assembly and new general elections, just after the National Assembly, on the 18th September, 1925, had adopted the first Budget showing a surplus.

The elections were held on November 15th, 1925, and brought great alterations in the balance of power among the parties. The Republican Party, the People's Party, the Slovak People's Party, and similarly the Agrarian and Christian Social Parties among the Germans improved their position, and on the other hand the socialist camp lost a considerable number of seats. The position of the Socialists in the government was therefore also weaker, and their cooperation with the non-socialist parties correspondingly more difficult. This government was re-formed after the elections on December 9th, 1925, again on the basis of the All National Coalition under the leadership of Svehla, as it still included the Czechoslovak Small Traders Party. The situation after the election of the leaders of the legislative bodies, in which the



*Dr. Antonín Švehla,
Prime Minister,
and leader of the Czechoslovak Republican Party.*

Socialists felt that they were cold-shouldered, led to a tension, which was followed by the resignation of the government on March 17th, 1926. Its most distinguished action was the passing of the Executive Order to the Language Law of February, 1926.

The government that followed was a Government of Officials, with Dr. Jan Černý at the head (18th March, 1926 to 12th October, 1926). Only three ministers remained in it from the previous Cabinet; Dr. Beneš, Dr. Engliš, and Dr. Kállay. One of the most important points in the programme of this government was the solution of the problem of the Customs, and State employees. This programme assembled around the government not only the bourgeois Czechoslovak parties, but also the German Farmers and the Christian Social Party, who had for some years renounced any profound agreement for active co-operation in the state. On the other hand it also united all the Socialist parties in opposition. The negotiations on the customs bill were very lively, but nevertheless the bill was passed on June 12th, 1926, in the next few days the bill for employees was disposed of, and on June 19th, after stormy discussions, the Law for the increased salaries of the clergy was also adopted. On June 25th the so called "substitute laws" were disposed of, that is the Sugar Tax and the increase in the Alcohol Tax.

This new grouping prepared the way for a new parliamentary government on the basis of the co-operation of the Czech and German Bourgeois parties. This government, under the leadership of Antonín Švehla, was appointed on October 12th, 1926, and has been in power from that day to this. It includes two German ministers: Dr. Mayr-Harting and Dr. Spina, while Dr. Beneš, Dr. Engliš, Dr. Kállay, and Dr. Peroutka remained in it as specialists. It was extended on 15th January, 1927, to include representatives of the Slovak People's Party, Dr. Gážík and Dr. Josef Tiso.

This government which, in gaining the co-operation of the Germans, solved one of the basic problems of the Republic, succeeded in passing a far-reaching taxation reform, a bill introducing stabilisation balances, an amendment for the re-regulation of local financial administrations, and, on July 1st, 1927, the Administrative Reform, which replaced the Provincial Divisions by the Land Statutes and introduced a unified administration in the whole state. This reform brought to a conclusion, an important problem, which had disturbed the policy of the state, especially in its relations to Slovakia, since the beginning of its existence. When we mention in addition that the last Budget expressed the progressive financial stabilisation of the state—the Budget again showed a considerable surplus—and that the balance of trade is satisfactory and the general economic situation has reached pre-war standards, it would seem that the balance of results shown by this

government, which is also the balance of ten years internal development in the state, is very satisfactory.

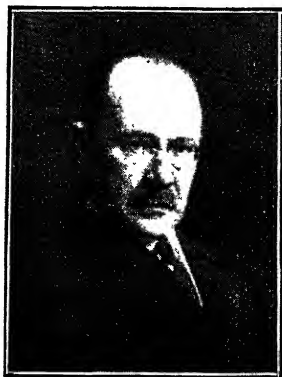
The tasks to be faced in the future by Czechoslovak internal policy are, firstly to maintain and confirm the present satisfactory economic and financial achievements, to deepen and extend the relations of the minorities to the State, to complete the work of simplification, already carried on in theory, by the practical execution of the Administrative Reform, on this basis, and in accordance with the peace treaties, to solve the problem of Carpathian Ruthenia, and finally to reconcile the interests of the labouring and other sections of the State by the maintenance of the social political achievements of the period succeeding the revolution. There is no reason to doubt that all these tasks will be as successfully discharged, as those which have already been achieved.



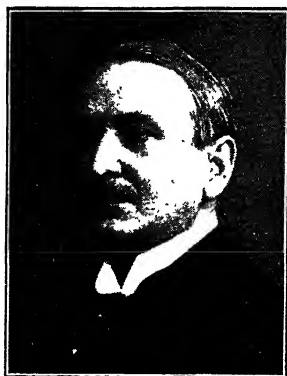
*Orlik Castle,
Bohemia.*

THE POLITICAL PARTIES IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA

The population of the Czechoslovak Republic is divided politically into no fewer than 24 political parties and sections. This large number must be ascribed on the one hand to the political activities of national minorities which, under a regime of complete political freedom, without regard to their numbers, are able to unite into parties, and on the other to the politically distinctive character of those parts of the Republic, the political



*Dr. Milan Hodža,
Minister of Education.*



*Dr. Karel Viškovský,
former president of the Land Office.*

development of which, up to the revolution, was entirely different from that of the so-called "historical provinces", and which, after the revolution, formed independent parties of their own, which are only gradually merging into the corresponding parties in the historical provinces.

If we consider in the first place the population of Czechoslovak nationality, on whose shoulders the idea of the Czechoslovak state principally rests, and which has, especially in the historical provinces, its political traditions of long standing and has attained a considerable degree of political development, we find mirrored in its political divisions on the one hand the various interests and needs of the different classes, then differences in cultural outlook, and finally differences of programme in the general sense having reference to the existing political and social order. We may divide the Czechoslovak parties firstly into agrarian, bourgeois, and workers' groups, secondly into a conservative-catholic camp on the one side and a bourgeois-progressive camp on the other, and

from a third point of view into socialist and non-socialist parties. The points at issue between these single groups and camps are principally differences of political programme, and in practical political tactics co-operation between them is not impossible, the only exception in this respect being the extreme left group of the socialist camp, the Communists, who have so far withdrawn from all cooperation.



*Václav Jar. Klofáč,
leader of the Czechoslovak National
Socialist Party,
vice-president of the Senate.*



*František Tomášek,
the first president of the Chamber
of Deputies.*

A survey of the political divisions of the Czechoslovak population may be given as follows:—

1. The Republican Party of Czechoslovak Agrarians, which organises the agrarian elements of the whole State and in practical politics emphasises the importance of agriculture, is the strongest party in numbers, secured almost a million votes at the last elections in 1925, and has the largest number of members (45) in Parliament. The party is supported by a widespread net of political and economic organisations, a press with wide circulation (the principal paper being the "Veňkov"), and by prominent leaders (Antonín Švehla, Dr. Milan Hodža, Dr. Karel Viškovský). From the first existence of the state it has been an eminent state-supporting and governmental party, and its leader, Antonín Švehla, now holds for the third time with success the reins of the Czechoslovak government. Soon after the revolution the party absorbed into itself the Slovak National and Farmers' Party and was also extended by the inclusion of various local parties in Carpathian Ruthenia.

2. The Czechoslovak National Democratic Party

is the inheritor of the pre-War Young Czech Party, which was revived after the revolution and amalgamated with four other bourgeois parties. It has therefore liberal tendencies and a national programme, but has nevertheless been more and more restricted, for local reasons, to bourgeois elements from industry, trade, and the conservative section of public employees. Having a national point of view on political questions, and conservative on economic and social questions, the party has been able to gain the leading positions in the towns, and to exercise, with the help of an influential press (*Národní Listy*), important political influence. The leader of the party is Dr. Karel Kramář. (The internal conflict of two factions in the party, the national Fascists and the liberal realists, was very considerably mitigated after the 1927 elections, if not completely liquidated.) In the 1925 elections the party gained 284,628 votes, and returned 13 members. It is a state supporting (constitutional) and governmental party.

3. The Small Traders Party only came into existence after the revolution, and represents an effort to gain greater recognition for the interests of small industry and trade, which had up to this time been the care of the National Democrats. This party is led by its organisers, Najman and Mlčoch, and in 1925 reached the same strength as the National Democrats, with 285,925 votes and 13 members. It is represented in the Government.

4. The Czechoslovak People's Party organises the rural and urban populations of the Republic on the basis of Catholic political convictions, and represents the culturally conservative camp. Politically and socially also the party has conservative characteristics, though it includes a working class element which in practical politics forces the party to keep step, to some extent, with the openly socialist workers' parties. Most of the Roman Catholic priesthood have declared for this party, and form the nucleus of its propaganda organisation. In the last elections the party gained 691,238 votes, and returned 31 members. The party has participated in the administration of the state since 1922, that is since the formation of the so-called All National Coalition. Among its chief leading men are the Papal prelate, Dr. Šrámek, and the Minister of the Interior, Dr. Nosek.

5. The weakest non-socialist party is the National Workers' Party, which came into existence by the succession of various persons, under the leadership of the Moravian politician, Dr. Jaroslav Stránský, from the National Democrats, but had no success in the elections. The party has a voluntary assistant in the "*Lidové Noviny*", of Brno (Brünn) and Prague, which has a very wide circulation. Towards the Government the party takes up a critical position, and in this respect forms the point of transition between the Government and the Opposition, which consists of the socialist parties.

6. Before passing to the latter it is necessary to refer to the Slovak parties. All the Czechoslovak parties mentioned extend their activities both to Slovakia and to Carpathian Ruthenia, but only the Agrarian party has firm roots there, owing to the fact that it amalgamated with the Slovak National and Farmers' party, and was thereby enabled to secure almost a quarter of a million votes. The other non-socialist parties gained only a few tens of thousands of votes in Slovakia, and are therefore of small political importance there. This is possessed, in addition to the Agrarian party and the socialist parties, only by the Slovak People's Party,



*Monsignor Jan Šrámek,
leader of the Czechoslovak Popular
(Catholic) Party.*



*Andrej Hlinka,
leader of the Slovak Popular
Catholic Party.*

which has the same basis of political ideas as the Czechoslovak Peoples' party, but with added emphasis on the autonomist part of the party programme. This party, led by Father Hlinka, secured almost half a million votes in the 1925 elections, and returns 23 members. It owns a paper of wide circulation ("The Slovak"), and has a very efficient organisation. Since the spring of 1927 it has formed part of the Government coalition.

7. Of undoubted importance in Slovakia is also the Slovak National Party. It had, indeed, no success in the elections, (securing only 35,446 votes in the whole of Slovakia) but it includes the whole of the nationally-minded Slovak evangelical intelligentsia.

The Socialist camp in the Republic is composed of three parties, whose activities extend over the whole territory of the Republic. There is in the first place:

8. The Czechoslovak National Socialist Party, with

a tradition going back before the revolution to 1897. It is the party of small bourgeois, with a considerable proportion of workmen. It is pre-eminently on the side of social reform, and cultural progress, and is supported by a number of political, trade, and economic organisations, and a widely circulated press ("České Slovo"). At the head of the party, which in the 1925 elections secured over 500,000 votes, and 28 members, is its founder, Senator Klofáč. The Minister for Foreign Affairs, Dr. Beneš, has also considerable influence here, and has been a member of the party since 1922. In 1926 an ex-minister and member of the party,



*Antonín Hampl,
leader of the Social-Democrat
Party.*



*Dr. Ludwig Czech,
leader of the German
Social-Democratic Party.*

George Stříbrný, who with some of his followers was excluded from the party, attempted to weaken the position of the party by the foundation of a new party of Slav National Socialists, but his efforts have so far met with small success.

9. The Social Democrat Party is the oldest Czechoslovak socialist party, having been founded in the year 1878. Its programme is anchored in Marxian socialism. In practice it stands for social reform. It has its own professional, gymnastic, and cultural organisations, and a widely circulated press (central organ the "Právo Lidu"). It took an active part in the efforts for freedom, and provided, in taking part in the first Government of the Republic, the first prime minister after the election (Tusar), and a series of ministers in that and subsequent governments. Since 1926 it has been, together with the Czech National Socialists, in opposition. After the revolution this was the strongest

Czechoslovak party of all, but in 1921 a split occurred, and the left wing developed into the Communist party. In 1925 it gained 630,894 votes, and 29 members. At the head of the party is the former Minister of Public Works, M. Hampl. Among the other leaders Dr. Meissner and M. Bechyně possess the greatest influence.

10. The Communist Party is organised in the same way as the communist party in other countries, in that it merely forms a section of the III. International. Its numerical strength as shown in the elections of 1925 (over 900,000 votes) is much greater than its political im-



*Dr. Robert Mayr-Harting,
Minister of Justice.*



*Dr. Franz Spina,
Minister of Public Works.*

portance, which is determined by the fact that the party carries a policy of negation to its logical conclusions. It is also an international party within the Republic, including in its organisation radical elements of all nationalities. This party has a proportionately much greater following in Carpathian Ruthenia and in Slovakia, therefore in the less politically developed provinces, than in the historical provinces. The party is otherwise similarly organised to the Social Democratic Party. (Central organ: "Rudé Právo").

Among the national minorities the most complete political classification is found among the Germans. Similar to the Czech majority, they have their Agrarian Party—the League of Farmers, the strongest political group in the German camp, representing over half a million votes and returning 24 members (Dr. Spina), their National Party (Dr. Rosche) similar to the National Democrats, which controls ten members,

their Christian Social Party (Dr. Mayr-Harting) with 13 members, their National Socialists (Knirsch) with 7 members, their Social Democrats with 17 members (Dr. Czech) and of course their Communists (Kreibich) who are organised within the unified Communist Party. The Agrarians and the Christian Social Party form the so-called "active" camp among the Germans, and are represented in the present Government.

This development of German policy in Czechoslovakia from negation to activism is not yet concluded. In the course of 1928 several of the German bourgeois parties have united in forming a German Democratic "Arbeitsgemeinschaft"—a "Working Alliance",—to which belongs in particular the group under Dr. Rosche, the former chairman of the German Nationalist Party. This working *bloc* declares itself to be of an activist tendency, but stands for more radical tactics than the German parties that are represented in the Government.

The Hungarian minority is more simply organised politically. It has only two political parties, the Hungarian National Party, which makes common cause at the elections with the German Agrarians and the Hungarian Christian Social party, which is led by Szűllő. The Hungarian Social Democrats and Communists are organised within the corresponding Czechoslovak parties. The Poles, whose Socialists are similarly organised, have in addition to the Socialist one single National Political Block, including the non-socialist Poles of all parties. Among the Jews the most developed politico-religious organisations are possessed on the one hand by the Zionists, and on the other by the Conservative Jews, but a number of ephemeral parties tend to struggle for existence at the elections.

In Carpathian Ruthenia, in addition to the Republican, the Social Democratic, and the Communist Parties, which each form one section of the national parties, only the Autonomist Agricultural Union is of any importance, an opposition party of Ruthenians, friendly to Hungary, and led by Kurtiak, together with the "Trudova Strana", which has "greater Russian" leanings, and is led by Gagatka and formerly cooperated with the Czechoslovak National Socialists, and the Ruthenian "Chliborobi", led by Volosin and co-operating with the Czechoslovak Peoples' Party and the Party of Autochthonous Magyars, which is led by Korlath, and co-operates for election purposes with the German Agrarians.

In Czechoslovakia also there has lately been a tendency towards the simplification of political parties, which may be seen not merely in the fact that certain party groups among the national minorities are approaching the similar Czechoslovak parties in sympathy, but also from the fact that attempts which are made from time to time to found new party groups are without success, and soon break down.

THE MINORITIES IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Czechoslovakia, in whose formation historical, geographic, and economic grounds were equally decisive with the ethnographic, includes, in addition to 65.5% of the population which is Czechoslovak in nationality, also 34.5% belonging to the national minorities. In the size of her minorities she approaches Poland. To these minorities in Czechoslovakia belong, in the first place 3,123,568 Germans, who, within the boundaries of the historical Bohemian provinces, and excluding the Germans in Slovakia (in Spiš) and Carpathian Ruthenia, have for many centuries lived amicably side by side with the Czechs, and are indivisibly bound up with them in administration, politics, and economic life. There are also 745,431 Hungarians, who for the most part live interspersed with Slovaks in the border districts of Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia, 461,894 Ruthenes, living in Carpathian Ruthenia and partly in Eastern Slovakia, annexed to the Czechoslovak Republic partly on the grounds of the voluntary decision taken by the Ruthenes of America, and partly on that of the National Council in Carpathian Ruthenia. There are in addition 180,855 Jews, spread over the whole territory of the Republic, but more thickly in Eastern Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia. Finally there are some very small sections of Rumanians, who inhabit some small villages in Carpathian Ruthenia, some Croats, and 75,853 Poles, living side by side with the Czechs in the Teschen district.

The founders of the Czechoslovak Republic were aware from the beginning of the struggle for existence of the Czechoslovak nation that, for geographical and economic reasons, the new State could not be a unity, and must contain minorities of nations speaking other languages. They therefore emphasised the fact that the fundamental conditions for existence and cultural development must be guaranteed to these minorities in the new State. For that reason they accepted without hesitation at the Peace Conference international responsibility for the protection of minorities, which was accepted integrally in the Constitution of the new Republic, and had been fully respected in the creation of democratic institutions in the State.

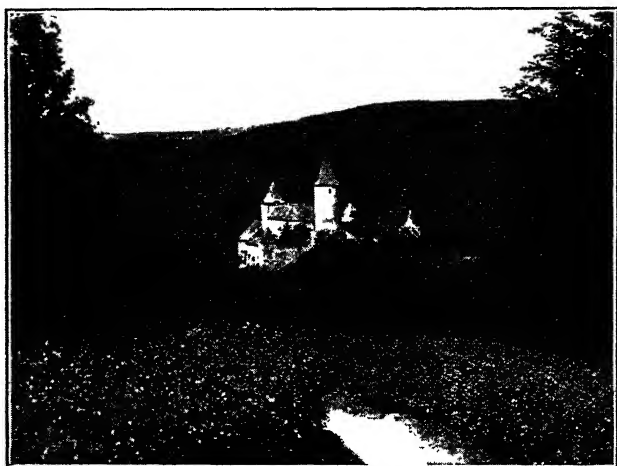
The national minorities in Czechoslovakia have therefore equal civil and political rights, and their high political development is a proof that this is not merely theoretical equality. The Czechoslovak Parliament includes 204 members of Czechoslovak nationality, 73 members of German parties, 13 Hungarians, 8 Ruthenes, and 2 Poles. The representatives of the minorities in Parliament correspond in proportion of numbers almost exactly to the proportion of the minorities to the Czechoslovak majority. Members of the national minorities have also naturally free entry into the public service under the conditions general-

ly obtaining, free entry to all posts and right to the free exercise of all trades and professions, and that here also the right is not merely theoretical is shown by the part played by the minorities in industry and trade, by the highly developed associations, and by the development of journalism among the minorities. As regards the language question, the minorities use their languages freely both in private and in business, as provided for in the Protection of Minorities. Their relations with the public offices is regulated by the Language Law and by the Complementary Order to that law in such a manner that all members of a minority, in a district which contains at least 20% of its population of that minority, may use their own language not only in the courts of justice but in all public offices, and that all matters shall be dealt with concerning them in the language of the minority. In districts in which the proportion does not reach 20% the Ameliorations to the Language Decrees ensure that no disadvantage shall accrue to a person for ignorance of the official language. In practise this means that, in the sense of the Language Decrees the single language regime in which German is the language used applies to 2,943,644 Germans living in 107 districts of the Republic, and the double language (Czech-German) regime applies to 753,220 Germans living in 34 mixed districts. Similarly Hungarian only is used in 13 justiciary districts, containing 435,426 Hungarians, and Hungarian and Slovak in districts containing a further 232,254 Hungarians. The Poles have Polish only in one Polish justiciary district containing 18,950 Poles, and Czech and Polish in two districts containing 44,296 Poles. As regards Ruthenian, this language possesses over the whole of Carpathian Ruthenia the same rights as the national (Czechoslovak) language, and is therefore an official language.

The situation of the minorities is characterised most strongly, after the language question, by the development of their schools. The statistics of the number of schools in the school year 1925 show that out of 14,017 national schools 9,226 were Czechoslovak, 459 Ruthenian, 3,339 German, 814 Hungarian, 85 Polish, 2 Rumanian, 9 Hebrew, and 83 mixed, but if these figures do not speak sufficiently clearly the fact that out of 318,410 German children of school age 308,595 could attend national schools in which they are taught in their mother tongue, and a further 2,851 children went to mixed schools, cannot be misunderstood. Of 101,859 children of Hungarian speech 91,032 could go to Hungarian schools, and 5,275 to mixed. The percentage of German and Hungarian children who did not go to German or Hungarian schools is in no way higher than the percentage of Czech and Slovak children going to schools of other nationalities, so that it is obvious that the majority of these children are those who are purposely sent to schools in another language, and that in Czechoslovakia it is fully provided for that every

child shall be able to go to a school of its mother tongue. The development of the schools among the minorities appears the more clearly when we add that the German minority, for example, could maintain in the same year 432 upper elementary schools, and a large number of middle and professional schools, together with a university and technical school, and that the Hungarians had also 14 upper-elementary, 5 middle, and 14 professional schools.

The situation disclosed by the above facts and figures, based on the



Křivoklát Castle, Bohemia.

desire to ensure for all citizens of the State all civil and political rights irrespective of nationality, and to offer them the same conditions for economic and cultural development, undoubtedly brought great gain to those minorities which were minorities before the War, being then, as they were, the objects of a systematic policy of de-nationalisation. This is true for instance of the Ruthenians, who formed part of Hungary, where they had neither civil, political language rights, nor schools, and for whom the Czechoslovak system means the rescue from collapse and disappearance. It is true also of the Germans in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia, who were, under the former regime, equal objects with the Slovaks of a systematic Magyarisation, and to whom Czechoslovakia first brought the schools and other conditions necessary for the renewal of their own cultural and political life. It is true also to a con-

siderable extent of the Poles and Jews, which last were not only given the right freely to declare themselves Jews, but were also provided with Hebrew schools. For the German and Hungarian minorities, who under the old regime formed part of the ruling nation, and who enjoyed many advantages and privileges at the expense of the Czechs and Slovaks, the new regime is no gain. It closed to them schools for which there were no German and Hungarian children, and which therefore were intended for Magyarisation and Germanisation, materially altered the language situation, and forced those who had previously been of the ruling nation into the position of minorities. This is to a considerable extent the origin of the discontent of these minorities with the new regime, expressed particularly in the years immediately succeeding the revolution, and here too is the origin of the complaints of the situation of the minorities in Czechoslovakia. It is necessary to realise that the internal and external consolidation of the new State, which also convinced these minorities of the lasting character of the new State, has gradually altered the importance and character of this criticism and complaint. The Germans in particular realised that nothing remained but to accommodate themselves to the present state of affairs, and to endeavour by the use of their political power, given by the suffrage law to the German minority in like measure with the others, in cooperation with the Czech to secure advantages for this minority which are considerably in excess of the minimum to which every minority is entitled in the sense of the international treaties, and which could only be the fruit of political work in agreement with the majority. It is to be expected that the Hungarian minority also will sooner or later find this way.



Štrbské Pleso in winter (the High Tatra).

THE EXTERNAL POLICY OF CZECHOSLOVAKIA

The external policy of Czechoslovakia, which has been in the hands of the same Foreign Minister, Dr. Beneš, since the beginning of the State's existence, is based on three principles: The first naturally is the vital necessities and interests of the new State, issuing as it did from a revolution. The second was provided by the extraordinary situation in Europe after the world War, owing to the influence of the general economic and moral exhaustion. The third and last was provided by the democratic character of the revolution and the forces and tendencies working for peace, which made themselves felt in Europe and a great part of the world after the War.

The needs and interests of a small central European State, founded by a people with peaceful traditions, and with a capacity for production which necessitates wide markets, caused it from the beginning to live at peace with its neighbours, and to cooperate closely with them in economic matters. The extraordinary situation after the War, and the economic collapse together with the revolutionary tendencies in various forms making for a return to the past, made it necessary to secure allies for the protection of Central Europe, and emphasised the necessity for constructive work in Central Europe.

Finally the international political tendencies, determined by the efforts to make peace secure, coming to expression above all in the League of Nations, tended to international cooperation and the accommodation of individual policy to that of peace, or alternately to that

of All Europe or of the world. Czechoslovak external policy has been from the beginning and is to-day the result of these three directives, which are expressed in all phases of its development.

Naturally the principal care in Czechoslovak foreign policy, as that of a new State, was to secure its own boundaries and to solve all problems with which this was bound up. Among these is found in particular the question of the peaceful settlement of the Teschen question (28th July, 1920), the boundary question in Slovakia, finally settled by the treaty of Trianon, and the later and less important question of Javorina. The efforts to arrive at friendly relations with all immediate neighbours began with the settlement of trade and political relations with Austria (7th June, 1920, was the date of the so-called Brunn Treaty concerning State citizenship and Minorities, with the Provisional Commercial and Customs Agreement following it within a year), commercial and economic relations with Germany (29th June, 1920), with Yugoslavia (18th October, 1920), with Italy (March 23rd, 1921), and with Rumania, (April 23rd, 1921).

To this policy, which seeks economic co-operation in Central Europe, and which was followed up by two conferences of the Succession States in 1921, that of Rome and that of Portorosa, was early added the effort at co-operation and stabilisation of peaceful relations in the political sense. The Hapsburg restitution policy and propaganda, which found their home in Hungary, led to the formation of the Little Entente, which rests on the Czechoslovak-Yugoslav treaty (14th August, 1920, renewed and prolonged 31st August, 1923), the Czechoslovak-Rumanian Treaty (April 23rd, 1921, first prolonged 7. V. 1923, next prolonged 13. VI. 1926), and the Yugoslav-Rumanian Treaty (7. VI. 1921, first prolonged 7. VII. 1923, next prolonged 3. VIII. 1926), and has proved its defensive importance by the frustration of two Hapsburg rebellions in 1921.

Czechoslovak foreign policy did not however rest there in its efforts for Central European peace and political co-operation. It showed an interest from the beginning in the recuperation of Austria, and in peaceful relations with this Central European State, and concluded with it a political treaty, in which both States mutually guaranteed their respective possessions as fixed by the peace treaties, bound themselves to the observance of the Economic, Financial, and Minority Agreements which they had concluded or were about to conclude, and bound themselves to solve eventual conflicts in a friendly manner and by the use of a court of arbitration. The Arbitration Treaty concluded by the two States on March 5th, 1926, contains the detailed working out of these obligations. In the same year, 1921, peaceful relations with our Eastern neighbours, Poland, were expressed in the treaty of November 6th, 1921, which has been observed although the treaty was

not ratified, and only in 1923, with the conclusion of a Liquidation Treaty, were the reciprocal political relations given expression in a treaty of Arbitration (April 23rd, 1923).

Hand in hand with the efforts for reconciliation and economic and political co-operation, the attempt found expression in Czechoslovak foreign policy to support its own and Central European security upon friendly relations and agreement with the Great Powers, and to win for its own State and the whole of the new Central Europe a firm place in peaceful reconstruction and international co-operation.

In the first of these directions it was found possible in February, 1921, to conclude the Czechoslovak-Italian Protocol, which expressed the agreement of Italy in the anti-Hapsburg policy of the Little Entente. On 16th March, 1924, a treaty was concluded in Rome for the earnest co-operation of Italy and Czechoslovakia, which, along with the similar Italian-Yugoslav treaty, expressed Italy's interest in the maintenance of the order brought to Central Europe by the peace treaties. A similar interest is expressed by the Czechoslovak-French Treaty of January 20th, 1924, and the new treaty adapted to the situation created by Locarno (16th October, 1926), which is a part of the Locarno Agreement. In this Agreement Czechoslovakia also gave expression to her friendly relations with the great power which is her northern neighbour, Germany. We refer here to the German-Czechoslovak Arbitration Treaty. As England, towards whom Czechoslovakia has had from the beginning of her existence most friendly relations, had no direct interest in Central Europe which she wished to express in treaty form, and because the relations of the Republic with Russia have not yet been extended beyond a treaty for commercial relations, signed and concluded on June 5th, 1922, Czechoslovak foreign policy has exhausted in the above treaties all the guarantees by which she can directly guarantee her friendly relations with the great powers.

The relation of Czechoslovak foreign policy to international policy was and is up to the present determined by two considerations, one springing from the effort of the Republic to gain a firm and lasting position in the international system of States, and to fail in nothing by which the obvious interest of the State, and the interest of the whole of Central Europe can be in any way furthered, and the other consisting in an interest in the success of peaceful international democratic tendencies, by which the existence of a small State, such as Czechoslovakia is, can best be ensured.

From the peace conference, at which for the first time her policy had to guard the interests and needs of the State, the way led to Genoa, where the Little Entente, prepared by previous discussions, entered the conference as a unit, then to the Hague, where an attempt was made to solve the Russian problem, and above all to Geneva

and the League of Nations, of which Czechoslovakia was a member from the first, and where she made her influence felt by an initiative displayed not only in questions immediately affecting Central Europe, such as that of the acceptance of Austria and Hungary as members of the League, that of the financial rehabilitation of these States, and of the military control of Hungary, but also in the solution of questions of such general interest, as the question of disarmament, security, and arbitration was and still is. The four year's membership of the council held by Czechoslovakia, (1923-1926), made it possible for her representative, and Minister of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Beneš, to intervene effectively in the negotiations for the Mutual Help Treaty in the Geneva Protocol, and to exert an immeasurable influence in the solution of the disarmament and security problem after the breakdown of the Geneva Protocol, by participation in the Disarmament Commission, and finally by his function as chairman in the new Security Committee.

If it may be said that, after nine years development, the Czechoslovak State and its foreign policy, has achieved the maximum of results in ensuring for itself a firm place, and participation in international life. The progress may also be mentioned by which it has been able to deepen friendly relations, especially in the economic sphere, with a large number of European States (the question of Russia alone remains unsolved). This she has done in the first place by the development of Central European relations on a political basis, consisting in the system of firm and lasting alliances within the Little Entente, and the friendly relations maintained with Austria and Poland. The new Commercial Treaty with Austria, concluded April 26th, 1927, the Commercial Treaty with Hungary concluded on May 31st, 1927, and the proposed commercial treaty with Yugoslavia, are visible results of this. Politically, weakness can only be spoken of in connection with the relations of Hungary to Czechoslovakia and her other Central European neighbours. In this respect also Czechoslovakia lays all possible emphasis on the fact that Hungary belongs both geographically and economically to Central Europe, and that her co-operation with the Central European States is not only Hungary's most natural policy, but is a preliminary condition for the lasting pacification and stabilisation of Central Europe. Czechoslovakia therefore does not hesitate to emphasise on every occasion that she is prepared for such co-operation, which readiness also doubtless exists on the part of Hungary's other neighbours. The question of this co-operation is merely one of the renunciation by Hungary of a policy determined by catchwords about the renewal of integrity and a far-reaching revision of boundaries, that is by catchwords which stand in direct contradiction to the need for peace and quiet in Central and all other parts of Europe.

4. STATE ORGANISATION

THE CONSTITUTION

The Constitution of the Czechoslovak Republic is codified mainly in the Constitutional Charter (Act, dated 29 February 1920, No. 121 of the Code of Laws and Regulations) passed by the Convention Parliament, which body was the successor of the National Committee that carried into execution the State revolution of October 28th, 1918. One of the component parts of the Constitutional Charter is the constitutional law on the principles of language rights (dated 29 February, No. 122 of the Code of Laws and Regulations) and the law on the protection of personal liberty and the inviolability of the home and of matter entrusted to the mail dated 9 April 1920, No. 293). The Constitution is a rigid one, since, for the amendment of the Constitutional Charter and its component parts, a three-fifths majority is required in each Chamber of legislation.

The drawing up of the Constitutional Charter was an important fact in that it shows that a definitive Constitution had been duly prepared for a Czechoslovak State. The National Committee proclaimed, by a law of 28 October 1918, that an independent Czechoslovak State had entered into existence; it further laid down that the form of the Czechoslovak State would be fixed by the National Assembly in agreement with the Czechoslovak National Council in Paris which had already been the internationally recognized representative of the Czechoslovak State abroad. On 13 November 1918 the National Committee issued the temporary constitution which stated that the Czechoslovak State was a republic and that the head of the State was a President elected by the National Assembly. This temporary constitution has as model the French Constitution of 1875. It was amended in May 1919. At that time negotiations were being conducted for a treaty between the leading Allied and Associated Powers and Czechoslovakia (the so-called Minority Treaty) which was signed on 10 September 1919 at Saint Germain-en-Laye and entered into effect on 16 July 1920, that is, after the definitive constitution of the Czechoslovak Republic had come into force.

The Constitutional Charter contains almost word for word the provisions for the protection of the minorities which were contained in the Treaty of 10 September 1919.

The State is a democratic Republic founded on the principle of representative democracy and with an elected president at the head. According to the Constitution the people are the sole source of the entire state power in the Republic. The Constitutional Charter lays down by

what organs the sovereign people makes laws, carries them into execution and secures rights and justice. It also fixes the limits within which these organs must function so as not to encroach upon the civic liberties guaranteed by the Constitution.

The State territory is one and indivisible, and an indivisible component part of the whole is the autonomous territory of Carpathian Ruthenia to which, in the sense of the above-mentioned Minority Treaty, is guaranteed the widest measure of autonomy compatible with the unity of the Republic. According to the Constitutional Charter, Carpathian Ruthenia must have, in addition to its representatives in the National Assembly of the Republic, its own special Diet with power to make decisions in regard to laws relating to language, educational, religious and local administration affairs, as also in other matters transferred to it by the laws of the Czechoslovak Republic. No elections to the Diet have so far been held, because the representatives of Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia have not yet concluded their negotiations regarding the internal boundary between Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia. This boundary has to be fixed by a constitutional law passed by the National Assembly; owing to the need of a suitable form for this purpose, an agreement of the parties immediately concerned must be arrived at in advance. Carpathian Ruthenia has a privileged position also in the sphere of administration. At the head is a Governor nominated by the President of the Republic on the proposal of the Government and responsible not only to the Government, but also to the Carpathian Ruthenian Diet.

The immediate power in the State is organized according to the principle of the division of power in the State. The legislative power for the whole territory of the Republic resides in the National Assembly which consists of two Houses, the House of Deputies (300 deputies) and the Senate (150 senators). For further particulars see the article entitled "Parliament". As already stated, the Diet of Carpathian Ruthenia is also to have a certain power. Parliamentary bills may be presented by the Government or by either of the Houses of Parliament. In the case of bills rejected by the National Assembly, (with the exception of constitutional laws) a referendum may be taken at the suggestion of the Government. In the period from the prorogation of either House or from the expiry of its electoral period to the reassembling of the Houses, and further during the period of a prorogation or conclusion of their session, a Committee of 24 members (comprising 16 members chosen by the House of Deputies and 8 members chosen by the Senate) acts on all matters of immediate urgency, even if in ordinary circumstances they should require the enactment of legislation, and exercises control of all government and executive powers.

A constitutional law must always be passed by both Houses. If it is

not a question of a constitutional law (which must be expressly stated to be such), a decision of the House of Deputies becomes law despite an adverse decision of the Senate, if the House of Deputies decides by a more than 50 per cent majority of all its members to abide by its original decision. If, however, the Senate by a 75 per cent majority of all its members rejects the bill accepted in the House of Deputies, the bill becomes law if the House of Deputies holds to its decision by a 60 per cent majority of all its members. If a bill is passed by the Senate and is rejected by the House of Deputies, the Senate can adhere to its original decision by a more than 50 per cent majority. In this case, however, its decision must be referred back to the House of Deputies. Should the House of Deputies reject the bill for the second time by a more than 50 per cent majority of all its members the bill is lost.

Bills so rejected may not be presented again to either House until after the lapse of one year.

Government Budget and Army bills must first be presented to the House of Deputies.

The President of the Republic has the right to return with comments any bill passed by the National Assembly. Should both Houses, by ballot, taken on roll-call, affirm the returned bill by a more than 50 per cent majority of all their members, the bill becomes law despite the President's comments. Should no agreement regarding the returned bill be arrived at between the two Houses, the bill becomes law, provided that the House of Deputies in the new ballot taken by roll-call passes it by a three-fifths majority of all its members.

Enactments not conforming with the Constitutional Charter or its component parts and amendments are invalid. The sanction to this provision of the Constitutional Charter is given by the institution known as the "Constitutional Court". The Constitutional Charter and its component parts may be amended or supplemented only by laws described as constitutional. This provision also is controlled by the Constitutional Court.

The governmental and executive power is entrusted by the Constitution to the President, the Government, the Ministries, and the lower administrative authorities.

The President of the Republic is elected by the National Assembly for a period of seven years at a common meeting of both Houses which hold a common meeting only on this one occasion and are styled the "National Assembly", before which the newly-elected President takes his oath. It is required that he be a citizen of the State, eligible for election to the House of Deputies and not less than 35 years of age. When the presidential office is vacant or when the President is absent or engaged in some special work, the executions of his functions appertain to the Government which may invest the Prime Minister with

the specific functions. A Deputy President may be elected by the National Assembly only under special circumstances and on the proposal of the Government.

The President of the Republic is an important factor in the sphere of legislation. He summons, prorogues, dissolves the National Assembly and declares its sessions at an end. His signature is required before bills passed by the National Assembly and also by the Diet of Carpathian Ruthenia become law. He reports to the National Assembly on the state of the Republic and recommends for consideration measures which he deems necessary and useful.

The President of the Republic is an important factor in relations with foreign States. He negotiates and ratifies international treaties. Certain treaties, especially commercial treaties, and treaties which entail for the citizens of the State financial or personal burdens, require the affirmation of Parliament. The President of the Republic receives foreign diplomatic representatives and accepts their letters of credence. He declares the existence of a state of war, declares war with the previous consent of Parliament, and lays before Parliament for approval peace treaties which have been concluded.

In the internal affairs of the State the President of the Republic nominates and dismisses the Prime Minister and other members of the Government; he nominates judges and high State officials; he grants pardons; and he is the commander-in-chief of the armed forces of the Republic. He is not answerable at law in the exercise of his functions; the Government is answerable for all the President's official utterances. Every governmental or executive act of the President must bear the co-signature of the member of the Government responsible for its execution. The President of the Republic may be prosecuted only for high treason, in which case the trial is conducted by the Senate upon an indictment found against him by the House of Deputies. The punishment can be only loss of his office and permanent disqualification for the Presidency.

The Government is nominated by the President of the Republic and is composed of the Prime Minister and the other members of the Cabinet. It exercises all the governmental and executive functions in as far as they are not expressly reserved for the President of the Republic by the Constitutional Charter or the laws. The Government has the right in the first place to issue Government decrees, which, however, are restricted in each case to the execution of some certain law. It decides in session all the more important matters of a constitutional, political and administrative character. The President of the Republic has the right to be present at and to preside over its meetings, to demand written reports from the individual Ministers, and to call it or its members to conference.

The Government is responsible to the House of Deputies, which may pass a vote of no confidence in it. Should the House of Deputies pass a vote of no confidence, the Government must resign. Should the Government resign at a time when there is no President or Deputy-President, the decision as to the resignation and as to the temporary direction of Government affairs is made by the above-mentioned Committee of 24 members which acts for the National Assembly. Should the Prime Minister or any other member of the Government either intentionally or from gross neglect violate the Constitution or other laws, he is answerable at law. The judicial proceedings are conducted by the Senate upon an indictment found by the House of Deputies.

The Ministries, whose activities are regulated in accordance with the Constitution by law, number at the present time 15; they comprise 14 Ministries of the usual type and a special Ministry for the unification of legislation and the organization of the State administration, because in one part of the Republic (Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia) the laws of former Austria prevail, and in the remainder of the Republic (Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia) the laws of former Hungary, in as far as these have not been replaced by the new laws of the Republic. The subordinate administrative offices consist on the one hand of offices of the State administration and on the other of local self-government offices, both in principle independent of each other. This dualism of administration, which is a heritage from former Austria and does not exist in principle in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia, will be abolished as from July 1st, 1928, in accordance with the law of 14 July 1927, No. 125, which provides that the existing State administration offices and local self-government offices shall be combined so as to become territorial and district administration offices. In the subordinate administration offices is fulfilled to a great extent the requirement of the Constitution that they should include representatives of the citizens and should endeavour in the fullest measure to protect the rights and interests of the citizens. Legal protection against the administrative authorities is provided in the Supreme Court of Justice by a court composed of independent judges and established for the entire territory of the Republic (the Supreme Court of Administration).

The regulations relating to the administration of justice are laid down in Section IV. of the Constitutional Charter. For further particulars see the article entitled "The Judicature".

On the model of other Constitutions the Constitutional Charter contains detailed regulations concerning the rights and liberties as well as the duties of the citizen; these are civic equality, personal liberty and freedom to own property, freedom of the press, the right of free assembly and the right to form associations, the right to petition, inviolability of matter entrusted to the mail, liberty of in-

struction, conscience and religious creed, liberty of expressing opinion, and special protection of wedlock, the family, and of motherhood.

The protection of national, religious and racial minorities is guaranteed on a far-reaching scale by the Constitution. In the Constitutional Charter there is repeated almost word for word everything that was provided by the Treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye in regard to the protection of minorities. According to the Constitution, all the inhabitants of the Republic in the same measure as the State citizens, full and absolute protection of life and freedom, irrespective of differences of birth, State citizenship, language, religion and race. Exceptions to this principle are allowed by the Constitution only as far as is permitted by international law. Special safeguards for the equality of State citizenship are provided by the Constitution in the section which deals with the protection of minorities and repeats almost word for word the respective stipulations contained in the Treaty of St. Germain. Minorities are further given the equal right to establish private schools, and in districts where there lives a considerable fraction of State citizens speaking a language other than Czechoslovak, the children of such Czechoslovak citizens are guaranteed instruction in their mother tongue at the State and municipal schools. The Constitutional Charter guarantees to the religious, national and language minorities the right to a due share of the public money for their educational, religious and philanthropic purposes.

The principles of language rights within the Republic were established by a special constitutional law (No. 122/1920), which forms a component part of the Constitutional Charter. The Czechoslovak language is the State, official language of the Republic. Whilst the Treaty of St. Germain provides that when an official language is introduced the members of a minority speaking another language shall be given the opportunity to make use of their own tongue before courts of law, the Language Law has widened this obligation laid down by the Treaty of St. Germain by the inclusion of all the remaining offices and organs. On presenting his petition the party belonging to the minority has his case dealt with in the State language with a translation written in the language used in the petition, or even only in the language used in the petition. The term minority is regarded as applying to at least 20% of State citizens who speak the same language (but a language other than Czechoslovak) and live in any one jurisdictional district. The protection of language rights is entrusted to the Supreme Court of Administration which interprets the provisions of the Language Law very liberally, and has given, for example, equal language rights to the members of a minority, irrespectively of whether the case concerns subjects of the Czechoslovak or of another State. The language problem is solved in a particularly advantageous manner in the local

government offices, the representative assemblies, and the public corporations. It is likewise provided that instruction in all schools established for members of the national minorities shall be given in their mother tongue. Also cultural institutions set up for them are administered in the same language. To the Diet of Carpathian Ruthenia is reserved the right to settle the language question for that territory in a manner compatible with the unity of the Czechoslovak State. The constitutional law has authorized the Government to carry into effect the principles of the Language Law and to issue regulations for the facilitation of official relations with parties that are ignorant either of the State language or of the minority language used in the court, office or organ concerned, and also for the protection of rights from juridical injustices which the parties might suffer owing to ignorance of the language. The Government Decree was issued on 3 February 1926 as No. 17 in the Code of Laws and Regulations.



Hluboká Castle, South Bohemia.

PARLIAMENT

The Czechoslovak Parliament consists of two Houses: a House of Deputies composed of 300 members elected for a period of six years, and a Senate composed of 150 members elected for a period of seven years. The election of the deputies and senators is carried out on the basis of proportional representation. The franchise is universal, equal, direct and secret.

The right to vote is possessed by all the State citizens of the Republic, irrespective of sex, who have attained the age of 21 (in the case of elections to the House of Deputies) or the age of 26 (in the case of elections to the Senate), and satisfy the other conditions of the electoral law. Their names are entered on Standing Lists of Voters (Law No. 663/1919, amended by Law No. 44/1920) which are drawn up anew twice every year. The voter must have resided in one polling district for at least three months. In the main, only those persons who have been deprived of the franchise by a judgment of the courts are excluded from the lists of voters. State citizens, irrespective of sex, who have attained the age of 30 are eligible for election to the House of Deputies, and those who have attained the age of 45 may be elected to the Senate.

Election are carried out according to the system of "bound" lists of candidates, in which alterations and cancellations are disregarded. With some exceptions, soldiers and members of the gendarmerie do not possess the active and passive franchise (Law No. 56/1927 and Government Decree No. 67/1927). There are 22 electoral areas for the House of Deputies and 13 for the Senate.

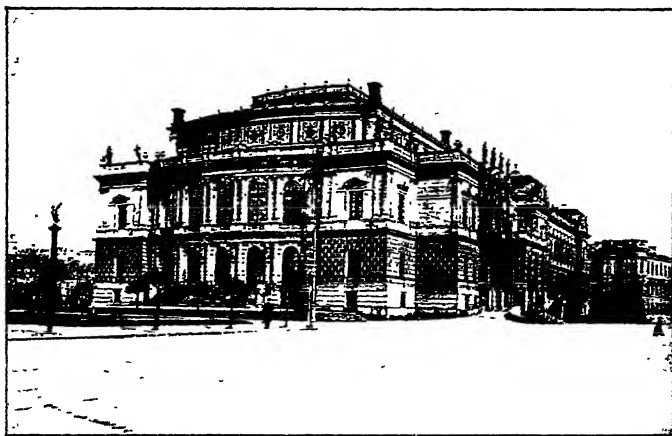
Elections are conducted on the basis of three scrutinies. At the first scrutiny the District Electoral Committee (consisting of a chairman, who is a State official, and polling officers selected by the local party organizations) allots to each party the number of seats equivalent to the number of times that the "election number" (calculated by dividing the total of valid votes in the district by the number of district mandates) is contained in the sum total of votes obtained by the party.

Seats not assigned at the first scrutiny are allotted by a Central Electoral Committee (consisting of a State official as chairman, and members proposed by the parties concerned) attached to the Ministry of the Interior, at the second or even the third scrutiny, when the whole State is regarded as one electoral area. Hence the parties present to the chairman of the Central Electoral Committee new lists of candidates which may contain (in any order) only the names of those candidates who have sought election in some constituency and have failed to be elected at the first scrutiny.

At the second scrutiny consideration is given only to the votes of parties which presented a list of candidates for the second and third

scrutinies and obtained a seat in at least one constituency. The number of seats is equal to the number of times the average of the election numbers from the first scrutiny is contained in the total of votes which remain over, and to which consideration is given at the second scrutiny.

The Central Electoral Committee allots to each party at the second scrutiny the number of seats corresponding to the number of times that the election number (ascertained by dividing the total votes re-



The Chamber of Deputies.

maining of all parties by the number of seats for the second scrutiny, plus one) is contained in the total number of the party's votes remaining from the first scrutiny.

If at the second scrutiny all the seats are not allotted, the Committee assigns the remaining seats to the different parties by division according to their size on the basis of the number of votes remaining over.

The seats not allotted at the first and second scrutinies are assigned at the third scrutiny. Also at this scrutiny the principle of proportional representation is observed, together with its leading idea—that of the protection of minorities.

All the parties, to which consideration is given at the second scrutiny, are divided, according to the nationality of the candidates as stated in the local lists of candidates, into two groups: group I of the national minorities (German, Magyar and Polish), and group II. of the remain-

ing parties. The same principle (the national minority principle) governs the division of the votes of the parties, to which consideration was not given at the second scrutiny, into group A (the minority parties) and group B (the remaining parties). The number of votes of group A and group B is used in order to ascertain how many of the seats allotted at the third scrutiny are to be assigned to group I. and how many to group II. The number of seats ascertained according to the election number (the quotient of the total number of votes of A and B and of the number of seats at the third scrutiny) and allotted on the basis of the votes of group A (the minority parties) is assigned to group I (the minority parties), and the number of seats allotted on the basis of the votes of group B is assigned to group II. Inside each group these seats are assigned to the parties proportionately according to the total number of votes registered for each party and according to the respective election number (ascertained by dividing the total votes of the group by the number of seats of the group, plus one).

The following example will serve as an illustration. At the elections to the House of Deputies in 1925, a total of 7,105,276 valid votes were registered. At the first scrutiny 184 seats were filled immediately, leaving 116 seats for the second and third scrutinies. The remainder of the votes of the parties that presented a list of candidates for these two scrutinies amounted to 2,432,170, and the average of all the election numbers from the individual constituencies was 23,834. Thus at the second scrutiny 102 seats were filled according to the election number 23,613. For the third scrutiny there remained over 14 seats. The total number of votes to which consideration was not given at the second scrutiny amounted to 36,650 in group A (minorities) and to 339,405 in group B. In accordance with the election number 26,861, one seat was assigned to group I., whilst group II. received 13 seats. Group I. had 1,834,102 votes, and group II. obtained 4,895,119 votes. The election number for the distribution of 13 seats for group II. was 349,651.

According to the final result of all three scrutinies, each of the parties obtained that number of seats which was due to it in accordance with the number of votes registered. Thus if in the case of each party we compare in percentages the number of votes registered with the number of seats assigned, we find the following proof of the technical advantages of the electoral system: in the 16 parties, to which were assigned 300 seats, there is not even a difference of 1% between the two percentages as regards 15 parties, and in the case of one party the difference is only 1,34%. This is surely the best of testimonies to the justice of the Czechoslovak electoral system.

The validity of votes is decided by an Electoral Court. No person is allowed to be a member of both Houses of Parliament. The members

of the National Assembly perform their duties personally. They are not permitted to accept orders from anyone or to address requests to public authorities with a view to securing support for the personal interests of the parties. They cannot be prosecuted for their voting in Parliament or in the Parliamentary Committees. For statements made there, members are amenable only to the disciplinary power of the House. Only with the consent of the respective Houses are members of Parliament liable to civil or criminal prosecution. If this consent be



*Jan Malypetr,
president of the Chamber
of Deputies.*



*Dr. Moric Hruban,
president of the Senate.*

not granted, such prosecution becomes for ever null and void. This provision does not apply to the legal liability of a member as responsible editor. If a member of either House be apprehended and arrested in the commission of a criminal act, the Chairman of the respective House must be immediately informed of the arrest. If within a fortnight the House does not give its consent to the arrest, it becomes null and void.

Members of both Houses have the right to refuse to give testimony in reference to matters confided to them as members.

The rules of procedure of the Houses are regulated by special laws.

The Session of the House of Deputies always begins and ends simultaneously with that of the Senate.

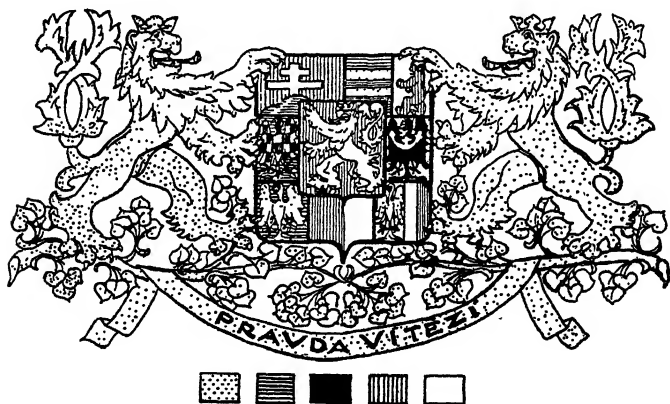
Parliament possesses legislative power (see above), elects the President of the Republic, or a Deputy-President, approves the Budget, and gives the decision regarding a declaration of war. Each House may address

questions to the Prime Minister and other Ministers in matters within the scope of their competence and may enquire into administration. The House of Deputies may pass a vote of no confidence in the Government and thus bring about its resignation.

The Senate may sit as a Court and is entitled, on a charge being laid by the House of Deputies, to try the President of the Republic for high treason and the members of the Government for violation of the constitutional or other laws.

THE STATE EMBLEMS AND THE STATE FLAG

The State Emblems and the State Flag of the Czechoslovak Republic are adjusted by law No. 252/1920 (administration decree No. 512/1920). The State flag consists of a red lower field and a white upper field, between which is inserted a blue wedge extending from the pole to the middle of the flag. The State coats-of-arms are three in number. In the small coat-of-arms there is, on a red shield, a silver lion rampant with bifurcated tail, facing right, with a frontlet (the Bohemian coat-of-arms), and bearing on the breast a small red escutcheon with three blue bosses, on the middle one of which is raised silver patriarchal cross (the device of Slovakia). The middle coat-of-arms has the Bohemian device in the central shield; on the rear, quartered shield are the bearings of Slovakia, Carpathian Ruthenia, Moravia and Silesia. On the large State coat-of-arms are added the bearings of the districts of Těšín (Teschen), Opava and Ratiboř.



Coat of Arms of the Czechoslovak Republic.



The Town Square, Hradec Králové.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNEMENT

"The State independence of the Czechoslovak people is the true culmination of its self-government. According to the Constitutional Charter, the people are the sole source of the entire State power." The functions of self-government acquired thereby entirely new and different forms. Under the Austrian régime self-government (as a share of the executive power) and autonomy (as a share of the legislative power) culminated in the Land Diets and in the Land (Provincial) Committees. The Constitutional Charter declared that the activity of the Land Diets at an end that only the Land Committees remained. The legislative activity of the Diet was transferred to the National Assembly, and the administrative activity of the Diet was transferred to the Government. Autonomy may be spoken of (see the article entitled "The Constitution") in the case of Carpathian Ruthenia. As regards local self-government, the Constitutional Charter declares that the composition and field of activity of the local self-government bodies shall be laid down by special laws, that as far as possible the citizens shall be represented in the subordinate State offices, and that care shall be taken by the administration authorities to protect in the fullest measure the rights and interests of the citizens (administrative jurisdiction). Territorial self-government, apart from the autonomy possessed by certain institutions is concentrated in the communes, districts and lands.

The basic local self-government unit is the local commune, which is a territorial, public-law corporation. The organization and activity of the commune rests mainly on the communal statutes. These are the territorial laws of 1864 (for the communes in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia) which subsequently received several amendments. For the communes in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia there is a communal statute contained in law art. XII/1866, which is supplemented by law No. 243/1923. From the universal communal statute are excluded the towns of Prague, Liberec, Brno, Olomouc, Kroměříž, Jihlava, Znojmo, Uherské Hradiště, Opava and Frýdek which have their own municipal jurisdiction; to most of them is entrusted the agenda which otherwise is dealt with by the State Political Office of first instance. In a similar position are the towns which possess a municipal council, such as Bratislava and Košice in Slovakia, and Užhorod and Mukačevo in Carpathian Ruthenia. The municipal administration statutes are amended in the case of all communes by law No. 329/1921 and law No. 77/1927. Also the right to hold municipal elections is regulated uniformly for all communes by law No. 75/1919, which is amended by law No. 253/1922. In various directions special regulations hold good for the capital Prague.

The organs of the commune are: the mayor, the communal assembly, the council, the committees, particularly the financial committee, and the communal board of magistrates. The communal assembly consists of from 9 to 60 members and passes resolutions on all the more important matters concerning the commune; the communal council is composed of one third of the members of the communal assembly and is the organ that conducts the administration, mainly economic (according to the budget). The mayor of the commune presides over both bodies, prepares and carries into effect their resolutions, stops illegal resolutions, represents the commune in its dealings with outside bodies, and with two members of the communal council ("penal senate") forms the local board of magistrates. To him is entrusted mainly the so-called delegated authority of the commune. The most important of the communal committees is the financial committee, half the members of which are elected from the communal assembly, whilst the other half are nominated by the higher authorities; to it belongs the right to control all the financial affairs of the commune and to bring forward objections to any of the financial resolutions of the communal assembly. The above-mentioned organs of the commune are elected according to the principle of proportional representation, the voting being universal, equal, direct and secret. The active and passive suffrage is not possessed (except in some cases) by members of the army and gendarmerie (law No. 56/1927 with government decree No. 67/1927).

From the right to vote are excluded mainly those who have been deprived of it by a law court in consequence of a criminal offence.

In Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia further factors in the communal administration are the notaries who on the basis of law No. 211/1920 became state officials. Their duty is to see to the state administration of the communes and the latter have to carry out their arrangements. In the internal affairs of the communes in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia the decisions are



Brno, the Capital of Moravia.

made by the communal organs (the Mayor, communal council and assembly) with the cooperation of the notary who has the right to oppose and annul communal resolutions. In towns in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia with municipal councils and administration the following organs take part in the communal administration: the municipal presidium, the municipal assembly and council and the municipal notaries. The municipal presidium consists of five members who are elected by the municipal assembly, and from their number the Government nominates the Mayor of the town. The municipal assembly consists of 48 members in Bratislava and Košice, and 42 members in Užhorod and Mukačevo. The municipal council is elected by the assembly and consists of one third of the members of the latter. In the municipal assembly sit by reason of their office the head notary and two notaries designated by him, and the Government may nominate five experts; of these a determining vote in the municipal council is possessed only by

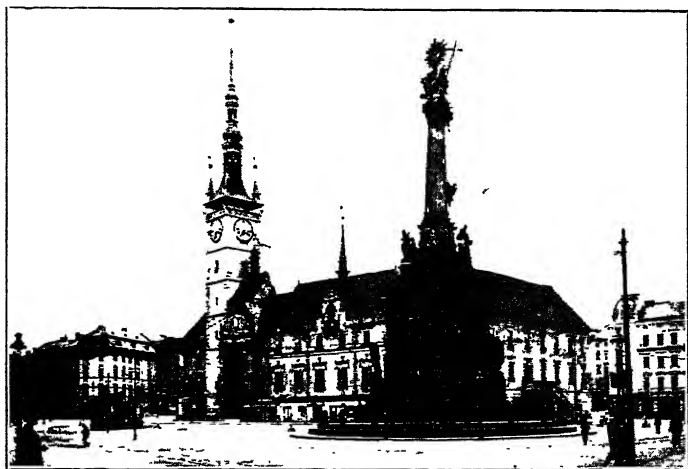
one notary and one expert. In the elections to the municipal council no part may be taken in the voting by non-elected members of the assembly. The municipal council carries out the resolutions of the assembly in matters of self-government and conducts the current financial administration of the town. The remaining affairs of the commune have been transferred to the municipal notaries' office at the head of which is the chief notary who is a state official.

A specially important position in municipal organization is occupied by the capital Prague. The communal assembly contains 100 members and elects from its midst a lord mayor whose appointment is confirmed on the proposal of the Government by the President of the Republic. In addition to him are elected three deputy mayors and a municipal council consisting of 24 members. Building matters are dealt with by a special building committee of 16 members (14 members are elected, four experts are appointed by the Minister of the Interior in agreement with the other Ministers concerned) and by an electoral body of 16 members for settling complaints.

The activities of the commune are both independent and delegated. In its independent activities the commune may, subject to conforming with the laws, freely pass resolutions in every matter, make bye-laws and take any steps which are for the welfare of the communes and which can be carried into effect with the help of the resources of the commune itself. To these communal activities belong social welfare (and the police) in matters relating to the commune as a corporation and community of citizens and relating to all its varied interests (economic, cultural and social, etc.). The State has taken over the work of the sanitary police apart from measures for the satisfaction of essential needs (law No. 332/1920 and law No. 236/1922). The delegated activity of the commune comprises the duties of the commune imposed upon it by law in the sphere of State administration; the commune assists the State in its tasks, both in matters of general State administration (as in the case of elections, the conducting of a census, etc.) and in affairs of special State administration (military, legal, financial, educational, etc.). With the extensive reform of the State direct taxes were regulated the communal finances by the law No. 77/1927. According to this law, the communal increases to the direct taxes must not exceed 200% or, in the case of communes that are greatly in debt, 300%. In each of the lands there is formed from the State sources of income a special "Compensation" fund which is administrated by the territorial committees and from which communes and districts that are financially weak can obtain financial support.

A higher unit of local self-government is the district, which is a territorial, public-law corporation having at its head elected organs, the district assembly and a district committee. Because elections to these

bodies could not be held (owing to the obsolete electoral regulations), their functions were carried out, after the national revolution of October 28th, 1918, by a nominated district administration commission which was formed on the principle of the proportional representation of the parties in the district. Self-government districts, to the number of 218, occur only in Bohemia; in Moravia and Silesia there are only district road committees—82 in Moravia and 21 in Silesia—which are organs of autonomous interests. Within the competence of the local self-



Olomouc, Moravia.

government district in Bohemia are all the internal affairs concerning the district and its members, and in some cases these affairs are placed within the competence of the district by law. This refers mainly to their own financial affairs, to supervision and decisions in the financial affairs of the communes, game laws, etc., agricultural sanitary, social and cultural affairs, communications and workhouses. The authorities with the right of annulment and supervision are the territorial committee, but the State administration authorities possess the right to stop any of their resolutions that are contrary to the law, the right to dismiss them and the right to impose compulsory increases. The local government districts do not possess executives, since the carrying into execution of their decisions is reserved for the State administration authorities.

The third and highest areas of local government are the *lands* which are now represented, after the cessation of the activities of the Diets, by the territorial committees which at the present day are nominated by the Government on the basis of proportional representation. Their range of activities is extensive. For example, they deal with the affairs of the communes and districts, of financial institutions like the Land Bank and the Mortgage Bank, of the territorial humanitarian institutions, the territorial forced-labour and reformatory institutions, the territorial cultural institutions (theatres, museums, the Modern Gallery), the Corn Exchange, and of the agricultural and handicraft schools, the lower elementary and higher elementary schools, and land improvement, etc.

In Slovakia there were after the revolution of October 28th, 1918, 17 counties, 4 towns with municipal law, 36 towns with the regulated magistrature and a number of districts. These administration areas were abolished or replaced according to law No. 126/1920 on the institution of "župy" (counties), so that since January 1st, 1923, there have been in Slovakia 6 župy with their respective staffs of officials, 3 towns with regulated magistratures and 81 district self-government offices. The organs of the župy, or county areas, are the župan (a state official), an elected assembly of 35 members and a committee with 8 members; the district organ is the district chief (a state official) and a district committee of 8 elected members. The State administration and the self-government administration authorities are combined in these county and district offices. In Carpathian Ruthenia there were after the revolution three župy which in 1926 were combined in one with its centre at Mukačevo. The administrative territory is divided into districts, and two towns with regulated magistratures (Užhorod and Mukačevo) fulfil at the same time the functions of district self-government offices. Here also the State administration and self-government administration authorities are combined in single offices.

In place of the districts and lands in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia and in place of the župy and districts in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia there will enter into existence on July 1st, 1928, in consequence of the great administration reforms provided for by law No. 125/1927, a new organization based on the principle of the combination of the State administration and self-government administration offices in single offices. These new offices are territorial and district offices. The territorial offices will be established for Bohemia in Prague, for Moravia and Silesia in Brno, for Slovakia in Bratislava and for Carpathian Ruthenia in Užhorod. These areas and their centres cannot be changed except by law. The existing territories of Moravia and Silesia are combined in one Moravian-Silesian territory. The organs of the territorial self-government areas are the territorial

president, the territorial assembly, committee and commissions. The territorial president and the officials under him are State officials. The territorial assembly of Bohemia has 120 members, of Moravia-Silesia 60, of Slovakia 54, and of Carpathian Ruthenia 18. Two-thirds of the members are elected (law No. 126/1927) in accordance with the principle of proportional representation and the voting is universal, direct, equal and secret. The members are elected for a period of 6 years. One third of the members are nominated by the Government from among the experts, regard being had to the economic, cultural, national, and social conditions. The chairman of the territorial assembly is the territorial president. The territorial assembly elects from its numbers a territorial committee of 12 members (in Carpathian Ruthenia it consists of 6 members). Territorial commissions can be established by the territorial assembly for the administration and supervision of the individual territorial institutions and enterprises, or for looking after different territorial affairs. The territorial commission for the Silesian institutions and undertakings existing on July 1st, 1928 is an obligatory one.



Banská Bystrica, Slovakia.

The activities of the territorial assembly are economic and administrative, norm-fixing, advisory and judicatory. The economic and administration activities comprise attention to the humanitarian, sanitary, social, economic, transport and cultural interests of the territorial self-government areas, in as far as concerns the tasks which by their importance exceed the extent and needs of the individual communes and districts, relate to the interests of the greater part of the territorial self-government area and do not concern the State as a whole. In its

norm-fixing activities the territorial assembly may issue detailed regulations in regard to the laws passed by the National Assembly, if the law allows this and the Government authorizes the territorial assembly to do so; further, the latter body may make statutes for the regulation of the territorial institutions, together with regulations for the administration of the property of the communes, districts and territories, their undertakings and institutions, and for the carrying out of supervision of this administration. Decisions of this character require to be confirmed by the Ministry of the Interior in agreement with the other Ministries concerned. In its advisory function the territorial assembly acts as the advisory body for the territorial president and central authorities in matters of the public administration of the territorial self-government area, and it gives opinions and makes proposals. In its judicatory activity the territorial assembly will have the right, in the territorial senates (the composition of which will be fixed by law), of co-decision in regard to public administration disputes that come before the administration authorities. The finances of the territorial self-government areas are regulated partly by the above-mentioned law No. 77/1927 which introduces also into these areas a limitation of taxation increases (a maximum of 160%) and a closer supervision on the part of the Government.

The district authorities will have the district and centre fixed by government decree. The functions of self-government district authorities will appertain to the existing towns that have their own statute or established magistrature. At the head of the district office is a State official (the district hejtman). The citizens will take part in the administration in the district assemblies (to the extent of 18, 24, 30 and 36 members according to the number of inhabitants) and in the district committee (to the extent of 8 members). Two-thirds of the district assembly are elected, and one third is nominated by the Ministry of the Interior; the remainder of the organization and functions is the same as in the case of the territorial assembly, except that the district assembly does not possess the norm-fixing function. As regards the finances of the self-government district, law No. 77/1927 laid down a limitation of taxation increases at 110%, and in the case of districts that are considerably in debt, at 150%; the same law increased the supervisory rights of the subordinate offices and has enabled the districts that are financially weak to ask for contributions from the territorial "Compensation" fund, mentioned above in connexion with the communes. A more detailed explanation of the new law No. 77/1927 and No. 125/1927 is given in the article.

THE JUDICATURE

In addition to several special provisions relating to the Constitutional Court, the Electoral Court, and the Supreme Court of Administration, the Constitutional Charter devotes a special extensive section to judicial powers in general, in which are laid down the fundamental principles of the organization and competence of the courts and the guarantees of the independence of the judges. The Law is administered by State courts whose organization, jurisdiction and procedure are regulated by law. In order that a general idea may be gained of the judicial system, it is advisable to mention at once all the highest courts. They are: the Constitutional Court, the Supreme Court of Administration, the Electoral Court, the Supreme Court of Justice, to a certain extent the State Court and the Senate of the National Assembly.

The Constitutional Court (law No. 162/1920) sits in Prague and decides (on request) as to the validity of laws (except those which are expressly indicated as constitutional laws); it is officially authorized to decide as to the validity of measures which are adopted by the Standing Committee of 24 members of the National Assembly and have the value for the time being of law (see the article entitled "The Constitution"). This court ascertains whether a law is in conflict with the Constitutional Charter, its component parts, and the laws amending or supplementing it, and whether a measure adopted by the Standing Committee is in conflict with the constitutional laws or modify the competence of the civil service departments. An application for a decision as to the validity of a law may be made by the Supreme Court of Justice, the Supreme Court of Administration, the Electoral Court, the House of Deputies, the Senate and the Diet of Carpathian Ruthenia within three years from the day on which the law in question was promulgated. The finding of the Constitutional Court is published in the Code of Laws and Regulations, and this publication has the effect of making it binding, from the date of its publication, upon the legislative bodies, the Government, all public offices, and on the Courts.

The Supreme Court of Administration (laws No. 36/1876, No. 149/1905 and No. 3/1918) sits in Prague and decides as to the legality of the decisions and measures of the administration authorities, as to when there is any violation of constitutionally guaranteed political rights, as to the justice of claims made against the State and the Provinces (if the administration authorities, within the limits of their competency, have duly registered their decision in regard to such claims, and if it is merely a question of an examination of the justice of this decision), and as to whether it lies within the competency of the State administration offices or of the local-government administration authorities to make a decision, in cases when

conflicts arise between these two groups of administration authorities. An amending Bill on the Supreme Court of Administration has already been drafted and will pass through the final stage in Parliament in the very near future. The Supreme Court of Administration is termed Supreme, although there are no subordinate courts of administration up to the present. According to the programme laid down by the Constitution and according to the law on the organization of the political administration (law No. 125/1927), jurisdictional administration courts are to be established and attached to the Provincial and district offices.

The Electoral Court (laws No. 125/1920 and No. 145/1924) sits in Prague and decides appeals against the decision of the Revising Committee in accordance with the law dealing with the Standing List of voters; it examines and confirms the validity of elections of members of the National Assembly and Provincial assemblies, and it decides appeals respecting these elections and respecting elections to the Provincial committees and commissions. Further, it decides whether a Deputy, a Senator or a member of a župa assembly has forfeited his seat for having lost the right to be elected or for having lost, owing to some disreputable or dishonourable cause, his membership of the party of which he was a candidate, or for exercising an incompatible function, according to the law on incompatibility (law No. 144/24).

The Supreme Court of Justice (law No. 216/1919) sits in Brno and is the highest court for civil cases (in as far as, according to the law, it may function as a court of appeal). It is mainly a court of appeal in criminal cases. The Public Prosecutor at this court is the Procurator-General.

The State Court (laws No. 50 and No. 51 of the year 1923) sits in Brno and is the exclusively competent authority, for dealing under the Defence of the Republic Act, with crimes committed against the State. It is an independent court only for two reasons (on the ground that the law has been broken, and on the ground that some pivotal principle of criminal procedure has been disregarded, with the result that the defect in question has had a decisive influence on the verdict regarding the guilt). From this court appeals may be made to the Supreme Court, and also a plea of nullity may be filed. The Public Prosecutor in the State Court is the Attorney General.

The Senate of the National Assembly is empowered, according to the Constitution, to try, on an indictment found by the House of Deputies, the President of the Republic (but only for high treason) and the Prime Minister and another members of the Government, should they, either consciously or from gross neglect while acting in their official capacities, violate the constitutional or other laws.

Conflicts arising between the Supreme Court of Administration and the ordinary courts over the question of their respective legal capacit-

ies, and conflicts between the administration authorities and the courts are decided by a special senate consisting of a chairman nominated by the Government and of six members, three of whom are delegated by the Supreme Court of Administration and three by the Supreme Court of Justice. In particular, it should be noted that a decision of the Supreme Court of Administration as to whether in a given case it is a question, or is not a question, of a dispute in public law, is binding also for the ordinary courts (law No. 217/25).

There are no subordinate courts of law except those at the head of which is the Supreme Court of Justice in Brno. The remaining Supreme Courts that were mentioned above have no subordinate courts. This is the reason for the extensive regulations contained in the Constitutional Charter regarding the organization of the civil and criminal courts. Jurisdiction in civil cases is reserved to civil courts, either ordinary or extraordinary, and courts of arbitration. In criminal cases the judicial power appertains to public criminal courts, so far as by special law it is not reserved for courts martial (see the article entitled "National Defence"), or so far as these cases cannot be dealt with according to general regulations in police or financial prosecutions. No one may be tried other than before his legal judge. Only in cases of criminal procedure may extraordinary courts be established for a limited period and when provision for this has been specified in advance by law.

The ordinary civil courts comprise the district courts, the courts of first instance, the courts of second instance and the Supreme Court. The ordinary criminal courts comprise the district courts, the courts of first instance, the jury courts, the grand jury courts, the courts of second instance, the Supreme Court and the State Court.

The district courts try civil and criminal cases. In civil cases they decide disputes in regard to sums not exceeding 5,000 Kč. and disputes in matters requiring a rapid settlement (rent, lease and paternity disputes, disturbance of property rights, etc.). In undisputed matters they take the probate and land register agenda. Guardianship agenda, however, does not appertain to them in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia where the competent authorities in these matters are the public trustees who are subordinate to the Minister of Justice. The district courts are mostly executorial courts. They are the competent authorities for dealing with the least serious offences (misdemeanours) in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia and also with a few more serious ones (crimes). The judicial power in these courts is in the hands of magistrates sitting without juries.

Above the district courts are the courts of first instance which are established in the larger towns and administer justice in both civil and criminal cases. They are placed over the district courts as courts of appeal (in civil and criminal cases) and they function as

courts of first instance in civil cases (in all matters that do not come before the district courts) and in criminal cases and misdemeanours (in misdemeanours in as far as they do not come before other courts, such as jury courts, grand jury courts, or the State Court.) Minor disputes over sums not exceeding 20,000 Kč. are decided by benches of magistrates, and the less serious crimes are dealt with by single magistrates. For commercial cases, which as a rule come before the district courts and judges, there has been established by way of exception in Prague a special commercial court. The bench consists of three members who must be professional judges; for commercial and mining cases one of the members must be an expert in commerce or mining, the remaining two members being professional judges. In criminal cases the courts of first instance consist of benches of three or four members, all of whom are professional judges. Some press offences and some particularly serious crimes are dealt with by juries (3 professional judges and 12 jurors). In certain circumstances defined by law the employment of juries can be suspended for a time. The grand jury courts attached to these courts hear the evidence in connection with libel actions arising from communications published in the press (law No. 124/1924); such grand jury courts are composed of five members (three judges and two jurors taken from the people).

Above the courts of first instance are 4 courts of second instance: in Prague (for Bohemia), in Brno (for Moravia and Silesia), in Bratislava (for Western Slovakia), and in Košice (for Eastern Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia). These are courts of appeal. The benches are composed of 5 members and, in exceptional cases, of 3 members.

Mention was made above of the State Court which is the competent court to deal with the most serious crimes that come within the meaning of the Defence of the Republic Act. This court sits in benches of 6 members (3 professional judges, one of whom presides, and 3 members of the public who have a knowledge of law and are appointed by the President of the Republic for a period of three years).

The Supreme Court of Justice (also mentioned above) tries civil cases and sits in benches composed as a rule of five members; it decides disputes as to competence, delegated powers, the disciplinary powers of judges, advocates and notaries, functioning as a court of appeal and in some cases as a court of first instance. The order of precedence in civil cases in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia (district court, court of first instance, Supreme Court) differs from that obtaining in Slovakia (district court, court of first instance, court of second instance). In criminal cases the Supreme Court of Justice is mainly a court of appeal deciding pleas of nullity brought before the district courts or the magisterial courts of first instance or the jury courts.

In addition to these ordinary courts there are extraordinary and

arbitration courts, in which non-professional judges are more numerous than the professional ones. The extraordinary courts include, for example, trade courts, the patents court, and the supreme income-tax court, whilst the courts of arbitration include those dealing with mining disputes and social insurance and wages conflicts, etc.

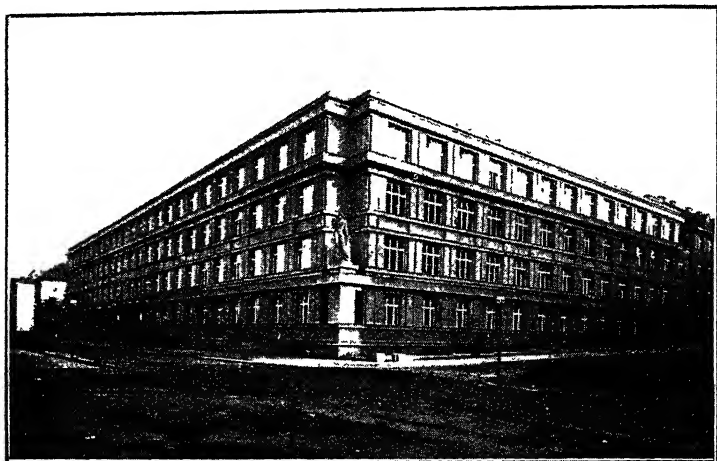
The Constitutional Charter lays down that judicial power in all courts be separated from the administrative power. Verdicts are given in the same of the Republic. Proceedings before law courts are verbal and public; verdicts in criminal cases are always given publicly. The public may be excluded during the proceedings only under circumstances defined by law. In criminal proceedings the principle of prosecution is adopted. The President of the Republic has the right to grant an amnesty or pardons, to mitigate a sentence and the legal consequences of verdicts of criminal courts, by ordering the abolition or the suspension of criminal legal proceedings with the exception of proceedings in which the action is brought by private individuals. These rights are not exercisable by the President of the Republic in the case of members of the Government accused or sentenced by the Senate of the National Assembly.

All judges are independent in the exercise of their functions and are bound only by law. They have the right, in determining a point of law, to enquire into the validity of a Government decree; in the case of a law they can only enquire as to whether it was properly promulgated. The law lays down the conditions necessary for the appointment of professional judges. Judges are always appointed permanently (for life); they may be transferred, dismissed or pensioned against their will only if a new juridical organization be set up for a time specified by law or on the grounds of lawful disciplinary proceedings, they may be pensioned also after a valid finding when they have attained the age stated by law. Benches at law courts of the first and second instance are permanent for one year. Judges must not perform other paid functions, either permanent or temporary, except when permitted by law. A special law defines the responsibility of the State and judges for any damage caused by a breach of right in the performance of their duties.

A special feature of the Czechoslovak legal system is the fact that some claims in private law are decided, in accordance with the laws relating thereto, by the administration authorities. For such cases the Constitutional Charter provided that, when one of the parties is dissatisfied with the decision of an administrative authority, he may, after exhausting every effort to obtain from the administration authorities a modification of the decision, appeal to the ordinary courts of law. This principle was introduced by law No. 217/1925.

NATIONAL DEFENCE

The armed forces of Czechoslovakia are built up on the basis of universal military service, to which all physically and mentally fit male citizens between the ages of 20 and 50 are liable (counting from the beginning of the year in which the age of 20 is attained to the end of the year in which the age of 50 is reached). This principle was laid down in the Constitution and was put into execution by the Defence



The Military Cartographic Institute.

Law No. 193/1920, which was partly amended by Law No. 53/1927. The armed forces are divided according to the degree of military preparedness into the active army, the Reserve (I. and II.) and the militia. They are supplemented by recruiting and voluntary enrolment. Of the recruits in each calendar year 70,000 are taken for 14 months of training, and in transitional period, in accordance with Law No. 51/1927, for 18 months; the remainder of the recruits are put into the militia, in which the training lasts for 12 weeks; into the latter category are placed those recruits who have families to support and are the proprietors of inherited small-sized and medium-sized agricultural holdings, and also those who, for other family, economic, and social reasons, etc., deserve special consideration.

The armed forces obtain their billets and drilling areas in accordance with the Billeting Acts (Laws No. 93/1897 and 100/1895, Law

art. XXXVI/1897 and XXXIX/1895, Laws No. 248/1920 and 118/1924), their draught animals in time of peace under Law No. 86/1905 and § 13 of Law art. IX/1844, their horses, vehicles and other means of transport for mobilization and war in accordance with Law No. 177/1924, and other material requirements in mobilization as provided by Military Law No. 236/1912 and Law art. LXVIII/1913.

The armed forces are divided into the main branches (infantry, artillery, air force, and cavalry), the auxiliary branches (engineers, telegraphists, motor transport, and army service corps), and the various



*František Udržal,
Minister of National Defence*



*General Jan Syrový,
Chief of General Staff.*

special services (sanitary, technical, commissariat, adjutant-general's department, chaplains, recruiting, repairs service, veterinary service, and clerical department, etc.).

The Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces is the President of the Republic

The central administration authority of all the armed forces is the Ministry of National Defence which, in accordance with Law No. 218/1920 deals independently with army administration affairs, but in matters of political administration works in co-operation with the Ministry of the Interior. To the Ministry of National Defence is subordinate the Chief of the General Staff, who carries out the preparations for the military defence of the Republic.

Under the Ministry of National Defence are the four Military Commands (Prague, Brno, Bratislava and Košice), to which are subordinate the army corps (divisions and independent brigades) and the military

bodies not belonging to the army corps. Each division consists of the requisite number of brigades and of a few further necessary formations. The brigades are composed of regiments and independent detachments or companies. In addition to the Ministry of National Defence, the term "military authorities" is applied as a rule also to the departments of the Quarter-master-general and the Paymaster-general, the brigade, divisional and army courts-martial, the Adjutant-general's department, the recruiting department, and the army building directorate.

In accordance with the Constitutional Language Law (Law No. 122/1920), the language used in army administration and in military commands is Czechoslovak; in the case of troops who do not understand Czechoslovak, use may be made of their mother tongue.

The obligation of military service involves certain restrictions in the life of the citizen, such as limitation of freedom to emigrate and travel abroad, prohibition of marriage without official permission, subordination of military persons to the special jurisdiction of courts-martial and military disciplinary authorities, loss of active and passive electoral rights in the case of all persons undergoing their legal period of military service or performing military exercises, also in the case of all persons in further active service, and of regular officers and sergeant-majors in active service, as was provided by Law No. 56/1927 (with certain exceptions, such as those when persons who are undergoing military training in consequence of mobilization cannot vote but may be elected).

II.
ECONOMIC
AND
SOCIAL SECTION



The Village Square, Viska (Bohemia)

ECONOMIC CONDITIONS IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA

1. BASES OF THE REPUBLIC'S ECONOMIC LIFE

From an economic point of view the Czechoslovak Republic has the advantage of a comparatively very favourable composition in that it marks more or less of an equilibrium between Agriculture and Industry. In both agricultural and industrial output Czechoslovakia ranks among the most developed countries of Europe, and, at the same time, the importance and extent of its foreign trade gives it a foremost place among European States. A favourable feature of Czechoslovakia's production generally is that it is dispersed over a very large number of branches, so that a certain measure of balance is produced and the shocks of economic crises are considerably minimized.

To a certain extent industrial output in Czechoslovakia prevails over agricultural output, especially in the Western parts of the Republic. In the East, in Slovakia and particularly in Carpathian Ruthenia, an agricultural character predominates. This fact is reflected in the distribution of population according to occupation. In agriculture and forestry 39.56% of the entire population is engaged, in industry and trades 33.80%, in commerce, banking and transport 10.66%, in the liberal professions, military and public services 5.5%, while 10.4%

is represented by sundry occupations or persons of private means. In the Sudeten districts (Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia), agricultur and forestry occupy merely some 32% of the population, whereas in the Carpathian lands (Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia) the proportion is roughly 62%. According to the census of 15th February 1921 the total population of the country was 13,611,349. Of this number, 2,147,901 were persons in independent positions and tenant farmers, 3,913,091 were employees, while 6,898,345 were members of the families of those categories. Thus, close upon 50% of the entire population are actual earners and workers.

I. Agriculture

Agriculture in Czechoslovakia is highly developed, is carried on intensively, and is, it may be said, industrialized to a considerable extent. The Republic does not grow enough grain to meet domestic requirements, but, on the other hand, agriculture supplies large quantities of raw material for the agricultural industries, the output of which is exported to no small extent. In numbers of districts the growing of grain has been abandoned for the production of crops necessary for the agricultural industries. Farming is carried on most intensively in Central Bohemia and Moravia, and in parts of Southern Slovakia.

The superficial area of the country is distributed as follows:

	1924	1925	1926	1927
Arable land	42.9 %	42.1 %	43.13 %	42.14 %
Permanent meadow	9.87	9.9	9.85	9.84
Gardens	1.04	1.0	1.05	1.06
Vineyards	0.12	0.1	0.12	0.12
Pastures	8.56	8.5	8.53	8.51
Forests	33.15	33.2	33.14	33.5
Ponds, lakes and marshes	0.56	0.6	0.55	0.55
Land built on or uncultivated	4.61	4.6	4.63	4.63

The advanced state of development of agriculture is proved by the comparatively small area that is unproductive.

In 1926 and 1927 the arable land was under the following species of crops:

	In 1926	In 1927
Grain	54.26 %	54.29 %
Pulse	3.04	2.96
Industrial and commercial crops	1.1	1.15
Hacked crops	17.9	18.17
Vegetables	0.49	0.49
Fodder	19.58	19.47

Thus more than half the arable area is under grain.

<i>Area under:</i>	<i>In 1926</i>	<i>In 1927</i>
Wheat	10.63%	10.85%
Rye	14.16	13.48
Barley	12.07	12.04
Oats	14.33	14.46
Maize	2.68	2.68
Potatoes	10.98	11.00 .
Sugarbeet	4.70	4.97



Hop Fields at Zatec.

The yield per unit of area has not yet recovered the pre-War level, but it has of late made advance. In 1925 the average yield of wheat per hectare (2.47 acres) was 16.1 quintals (1 q.=2 cwts), of rye 16 quintals, of barley 16.3 quintals, of potatoes 114.2 quintals and of sugarbeet 273.5 quintals. In 1926 the yield per hectare was smaller as a result of the unfavourable weather and in the case of wheat was 15.6 quintals, of rye 15.1 quintals, of barley 15.4 quintals, of potatoes 100.7 quintals, and of sugarbeet 235.8 quintals.

Preliminary returns of the average yield per hectare for the year 1927 give the following figures: wheat 16.06 quintals, rye 15.1 quintals, barley 16.8 quintals, potatoes 118.4 quintals and sugarbeet 256.1 quintals.

The above mentioned main crops produced the following aggregate yield (in quintals, 000's omitted):

	1922	1924	1925	1926	1927
Wheat	9.150	8.773	10.700	9 708	11.306
Rye	12.979	11.362	14.760	12.620	13.430
Barley	10.092	9.702	12.380	11.170	11.979
Oats	10.385	12.041	13.040	13.080	13.171
Potatoes	90.691	65.142	74.150	64.140	77.075
Sugarbeet	52.401	83.774	90.750	65.504	75.356
Hops (cwts, 000's omitted)	112	106	140	167	196

Imports of wheat in 1926 exceeded exports of that grain by 2.125.670 quintals, and in the case of rye the excess was 902.550 quintals. In addition to this a considerable quantity of flour was imported. In 1926 flour and other milled products were imported to the extent of 2.359.080 quintals, and only 158.520 quintals were exported. The value of these quantities was 734 million crowns and 23 million crowns respectively. In the production of grain for breadmaking Czechoslovakia is thus unable to a very considerable extent to meet the needs of home consumption.

As regards the breeding of live stock, the War did a great deal of damage in Czechoslovakia, just as it did in all the other countries involved in the struggle. The ill effects of the War, however, have been almost made good again. The last live-stock census was taken on the 31st of December 1925, and it is possible to make a comparison with the condition of affairs on the 31st of December 1910. There were in Czechoslovakia in:

	1910	1920	1925
Horses	692.041	590.687	740.202
Cattle	4.595.782	4.376.765	4.691.320
Pigs	2.515.782	2.052.687	2.539.201
Sheep	1.322.342	985.526	861.128
Goats	711.196	1.220.752	1.244.701

Live stock breeding, especially that of cattle, has a particular significance for the mountain districts of Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia. In those districts, such breeding has been carried on in very primitive fashion, but efforts are now being made to introduce a system such as prevails, for example, in the Alps. Connected therewith is the endeavour to improve dairy-farming and to promote a cheese industry.

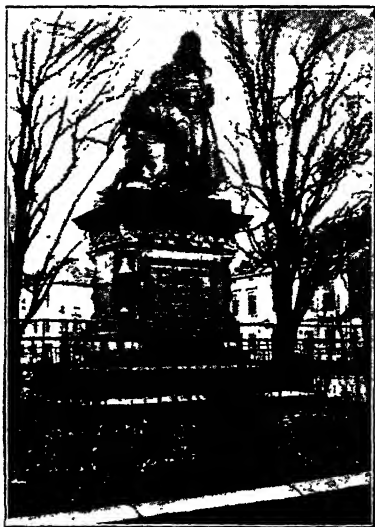
During the past few years agriculture has also developed strongly on its commercial side. There exists a highly developed and well-organized cooperative system, which includes numerous associations, all ultimately centred in the "Centro-kooperativ", a Federation which embraces both Czech and German cooperatives. Out of a total of 8.396

profit-earning cooperative societies (exclusive of credit societies) which existed in the Republic on the 31st of December 1926, the agricultural cooperative societies numbered 4,318, or 51% of the entire number.

The agricultural credit societies are likewise well developed. Such societies of the Schulze-Delitzsch system in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia, numbered 1,314 in 1926, and the loans advanced by them up to the end of the year 1925 amounted to close upon 5,500 million crowns. Societies of the Reiffeisen type in operation in the same area of the Republic in 1926 numbered 4,005. On the whole, it may be said that the cooperative movement has developed very rapidly in Czechoslovakia during the past few years, and is catching up with conditions in several other countries. Agricultural credit, elsewhere than in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia, is also exclusively provided through the medium of the cooperative credit societies.

As will be seen from the figures given above showing the distribution of the country's superficial area, there is a big proportion of forest. In forest wealth Czechoslovakia is, of European countries, only surpassed relatively by Finland, Sweden, Yugoslavia and Austria. The total area of forest in 1927 was 4,652,257 hectares. The annual yield of timber from these forests is 15,272,950 cubic metres, of which some 9,300,000 cubic metres are commercial timber and 6,000,000 metres appropriate for fuel. The inland consumption of timber is estimated at 8,800,000 cubic metres, so that some 6,000,000 cubic metres are available for export.

The general situation of agriculture in Czechoslovakia since the War is not unfavourable, the country has good prospects of further development, and it would seem that hand in hand with sound organisation agriculture is strengthening its position. Connected closely with agriculture in general are the flourishing agricultural industries (to be mentioned later on), turning out sugar, spirits, starch, beer, etc.



*Monument to the Veverka Cousins,
inventors of a new plough,
at Pardubice.*

2. *The Industries*

Less favourable—mainly on account of the difficulty of finding adequate markets—is the situation of the industries. The Czechoslovak Republic, especially its Western areas, is one of the most industrialized parts of all Europe. The Republic inherited a large proportion of the industries of former Austria. Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia represent about 56.8% of the Austrian industries, and to this must be added the industries of Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia. According to semi-official statistics, the Czechoslovak Republic inherited the following percentage of the entire Austro-Hungarian production within the new Czechoslovak territories: sugar 92%, alcohol and spirits 46%, malt 87%, metallurgical output 60%, porcelain nearly 100%, glass 92%, textiles 75%, leather 70%, and paper 65%. Of the 17,034 factories that existed in former Austria, 8,800 are in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia. The total number of factories in Czechoslovakia in 1924 was 14,452.

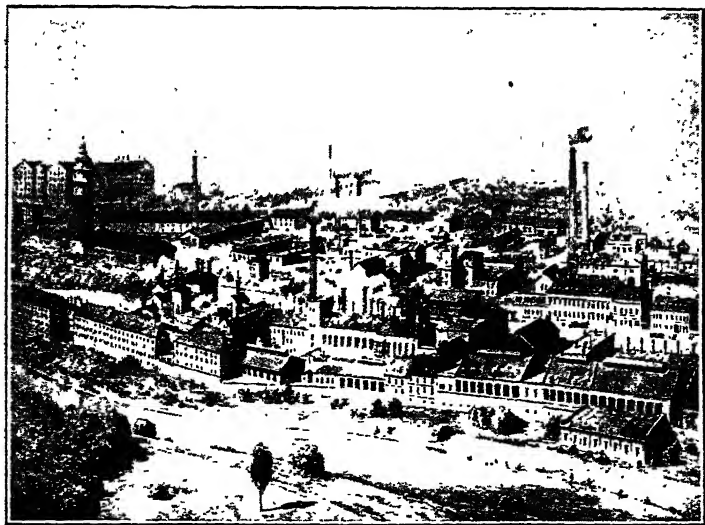
These industries were originally destined to supply the internal markets of an empire of 52 million inhabitants, while the industry in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia developed under the influence of the policy of subvention adopted by the Hungarian Government. Thus the Czechoslovak industries lost more than two-thirds of their markets, for what had previously been an inland market now became a foreign customs area. There thus arose a task of considerable difficulty, especially for the industries of Slovakia, namely the necessity of adapting the country's industries to the changed conditions. This adaption proved all the more arduous for the reason that in the neighbouring countries—that is, in what had previously been the markets—there arose new industries, and a tendency to prevent the import of Czechoslovak goods thither. If, however, we now look back upon development up to the present time we shall see that the great fears which were expressed in the early post-War years to the effect that the Czechoslovak industries would be unable to maintain their position have, so far at any rate, proved to a large extent exaggerated.

The main groups of Czechoslovak industry are the metallurgical and engineering trades, the textile trade, and the agricultural industries.

One great advantage for the industries of the country is that Czechoslovakia possesses a wealth of coal. In the Ostrava, Kladno, Plzeň and Rosice coalfields hard coal is raised possessing 6—7,000 calories, while in North Bohemia the brown variety (lignite) has 3—5,000 calories.

Lignite was raised to the amount of 15,200,000 tons in 1923, 20,500,000 tons in 1924, 18,800,000 tons in 1925, and 18,790,000 tons in 1926. Hard coal was raised to the amount of 11,600,000 tons in 1923, 14,360,000 tons in 1924, 12,600,000 tons in 1925, and 14,500,000 tons in 1926. The production of coke was 1,470,000 tons in 1923, 2,200,000 tons in 1924, 2,000,000 tons

in 1925 and 1,450,000 tons in 1926. Czechoslovak lignite is exported mainly to Germany and Austria. In 1923 this export was 2,132,000 tons, in 1924, 2,800,000 tons, in 1925, 2,600,000 tons, and in 1926, 2,800,000 tons. Hard coal is exported in the main to Austria and Hungary. In 1923 these exports were 1,736,000 tons, in 1924, 1,700,000 tons, in 1925, 1,400,000 tons, and in 1926, 2,800,000 tons. Hard coal was imported from Germany as follows: in 1923, 832,936 tons; in 1924, 951,000 tons; in 1925, 1,500,000 tons, and in 1926, 875,483 tons.



The Burgesses' Brewery, Plzeň (Pilsen).

Of the other mineral resources of the Republic main importance attaches to iron ore which is found in Central Bohemia and in Slovakia. The output of iron ore in 1926 was 1,419,108 tons. This quantity does not suffice to meet the needs of the country's pig-iron output, so that ore has to be imported, and comes mostly from Sweden, Hungary and Spain. Mention may at this juncture be made of the quarrying of raw graphite which is an item of export and has, at the same time, given rise to the country's important pencil industry. The output of raw graphite in 1923 was 98,730 quintals. Among other minerals, magnesium is found in Slovakia where it is worked up, and also forms a valuable item of export. Naphtha is raised in comparatively small quantities, the

monthly output being some 1500 to 1600 tons. The output of the salt mines in 1924 was 1.247.727 quintals, and is steadily rising.

As regards the number of persons employed in the various branches of industry, the first place is occupied by the building trade which employs (including their dependents) 656.081 persons. Then follows the clothing trade with 639.990, the metallurgical branch with 580.539, the textile trade with 458.219, the provisions trade with 452.338, the engineering trade with 345.048, the timber trade with 370.775, and the glass industry with 117.179.

Of the agricultural industries the most important is the sugar industry. The importance of the sugar industry rests in part upon its significance for the agriculture of the country, and partly upon the fact that sugar is one of the main export items. In the 1925-26 sugar campaign 166 sugar factories were in operation and worked up more than 8.800.000 tons of beet, which produced 1.507.300 tons of raw sugar. The sugarbeet crop in 1925-26 was larger than usual, and the output of sugar showed a big advance on that of preceding years. In 1923-24 the production was 1.428.000 tons, and in 1926-27 something over 1.087.000 tons. The big post-War demand for sugar encouraged an increase of production, and the level of the pre-War output has now been recovered. Home consumption has accounted for the following amounts: in 1923-24 for 360.000 tons, in 1925-26 for 390.000 tons, and in 1926-27 for 367.000 tons. In 1924 sugar exports totalled 637.000 tons, valued at 2.334 million crowns. The main destinations were Great Britain, Hamburg (transit), Italy, Austria, Switzerland and Trieste (transit). In 1925 the exports exceeded 1.000.000 tons, and in 1926 were 1.007.000 tons.

Another important agricultural industry is that of alcohol and spirit distilling, the raw materials for which are potatoes, molasses and maize. The agricultural distilleries mainly work up potatoes, while the industrial distilleries mostly employ molasses. The agricultural distilleries in 1925-26 numbered altogether 850, the industrial distilleries 42. There were, further, 54 refineries and bonded warehouses. The capacity of all the distilleries, agricultural and industrial, exceeds 1.500.000 hectolitres. The total output in 1925-26 was 580.000 hectolitres. In view of export difficulties it was found essential to fix certain quotas. That for the year 1925-26 was fixed at 564.000 hectolitres.

A very well-known branch of Czechoslovak industry is the Brewery trade, some of the breweries being specially equipped for export trade. Previous to the War the output of beer in what is now Czechoslovakia was some 12.000.000 hectolitres, whereas in 1926 the 524 breweries in operation turned out no more than 9.714.000 hectolitres, and exported only a $\frac{1}{2}\%$ of that quantity. In the brewery trade there is observable a concentration process, the smaller concerns in the country districts making place for the larger breweries. The main pre-War markets for export beer were Germany and Austria, and the situation

in the early post-War years was very unfavourable for export. Another hindrance to the export of Czechoslovak beers, especially Pilsen beer, is to be noted in the lack of trade-mark protection in almost all countries producing light beers. These are very frequently designated Pilsen beers, or beers brewed to Pilsen recipes. Nevertheless, with the growing economic consolidation in the individual countries during the past two years, there has been a large increase in the output and export of genuine Pilsen beers, and more than half the pre-War export figure has been recovered.



Vítkovice Ironworks, Moravia.

Connected with the brewery trade is the production of Malt. This is a highly developed industry, and Czechoslovak malt possesses very special qualities which it owes largely to the excellent barley grown in Moravia. The malt industry is one of the leading export industries of the Republic. The number of commercial malthouses in operation is 172, and their productive capacity is about 300.000 tons annually. Previous to the War malt was exported to the extent of 160.000 to 180.000 tons per annum, but after the War this export trade declined largely as a result of the introduction of prohibition in the United States of America and the high duties imposed on imports of malt to Germany. Nevertheless there has been a steady rise in malt exports during the post-War years, and in 1926 the amount exported was 171.258 tons, valued at Kč. 495.108.000.

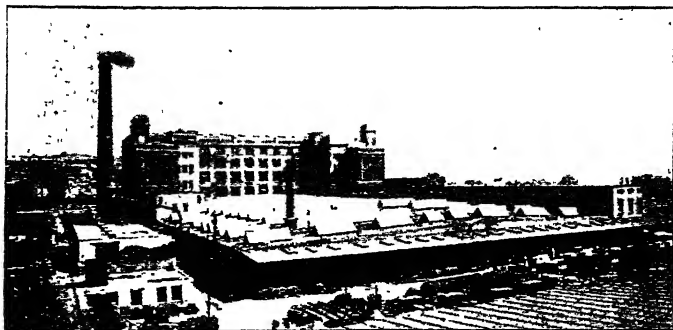
Of the other agricultural industries, mention may be made of the Flour-milling trade, the capacity of which could suffice to supply the whole country, yet large quantities of flour still continue to be imported.

The Starch industry, which before the War turned out some 45,000 tons of potato starch annually, has continued to develop. There is also an important branch of industry producing Synthetic coffee, a large proportion of the output being destined for export.

The last few years have seen a considerable development in the Chocolate and Sweets branch, 60 factories being now in operation. Another well-known branch is that turning out Preserved Meats and centred largely in Prague. The export trade, especially that in Prague hams, has again begun to advance. There is also a well-developed Liqueur industry.

Among the oldest and most outstanding industries of Czechoslovakia are the Iron, Metallurgical and Engineering branches. Mention has already been made of the output of iron ore and the production of coke, two of the auxiliary materials for the production of iron. The location of the blast furnaces is such that the industry in Central Bohemia has iron ore in its vicinity but lacks coke, while the industry in North Moravia has coke but lacks iron ore which it is compelled to import, mainly from Sweden. The Czechoslovak iron industry possesses 27 blast furnaces, and is represented mainly by the Prague Iron Company, the Mining and Iron Company, and the Vítkovice Coal and Iron Company. Previous to the War the output of pig-iron (exclusive of Slovakia) was about 1,500,000 tons. In 1922 (with Slovakia) it was no more than 350,000 tons; in 1923, 817,000 tons; in 1925, about 1,000,000 tons. The output of steel previous to the War was some 130,000 tons, in 1922, 440,000 tons, while in 1923 it advanced to about 1,000,000 tons. In the iron industry, too, there has been observable of recent years a tendency towards concentration. A number of minor concerns have ceased operations, and the above-mentioned three largest enterprises have established a joint sales office for their iron output. In the year 1924 the Czechoslovak iron cartel was extended to Austria by the inclusion of the Alpine concern, and an agreement was arrived at touching sales, on the one hand, in Czechoslovakia and Austria, and, on the other hand, in all other markets. In December 1926 the Czechoslovak iron industry joined the European Steel Cartel and secured a quota of 1,500,000. That branch of the industry turning out half-finished material is well developed, and mention in this connection may be made of the quality steels produced by the Poldi Company. Previous to the War, Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia turned out some 580,000 tons of ingots, 40,000 tons of crude plate, 66,000 tons of fine plate, 20,000 tons of wire and 52,000 tons of rails.

Half the output of iron and steel is required to meet the demands of the home Engineering trade which, particularly in special branches, is highly developed. Among the oldest established of these branches is that turning out agricultural machinery. The output includes every kind of agricultural machine from light ploughs to steam tractors and is exported practically into every part of the world. Among the specialized branches of output are those turning out plant and equipment for sugar factories, breweries and distilleries. Textile machinery, boilers, turbines, locomotives and trucks, carriages and waggons are also made. These latter are turned out by five concerns and their outstanding quality has secured them a market in many foreign countries.

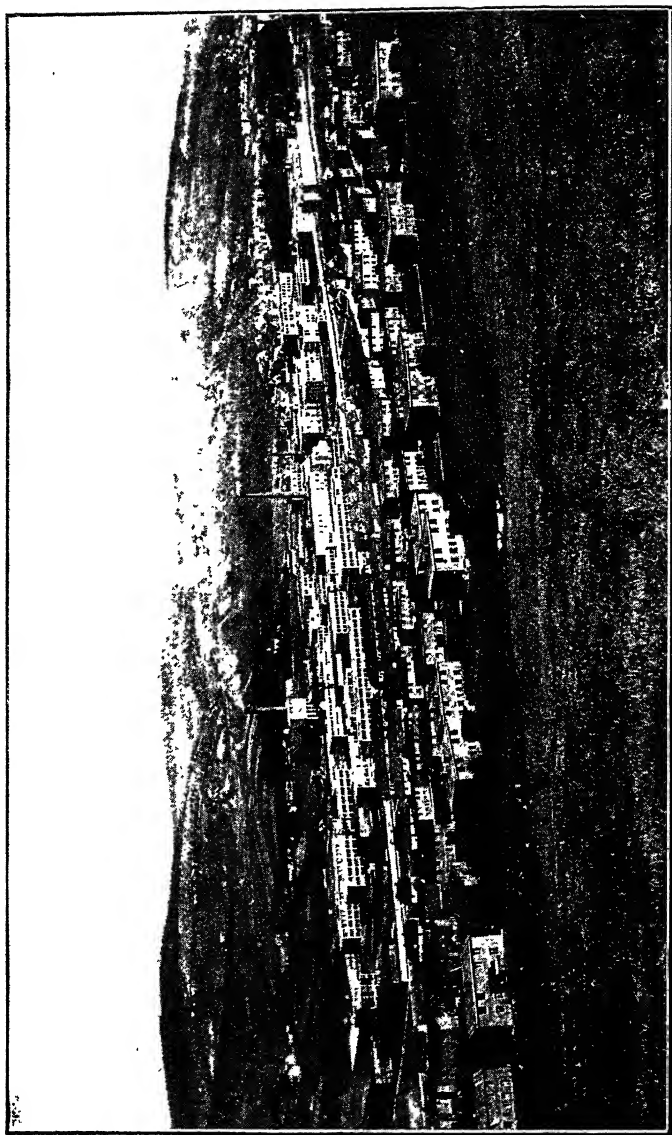


The "Praga" Automobile Works, Prague.

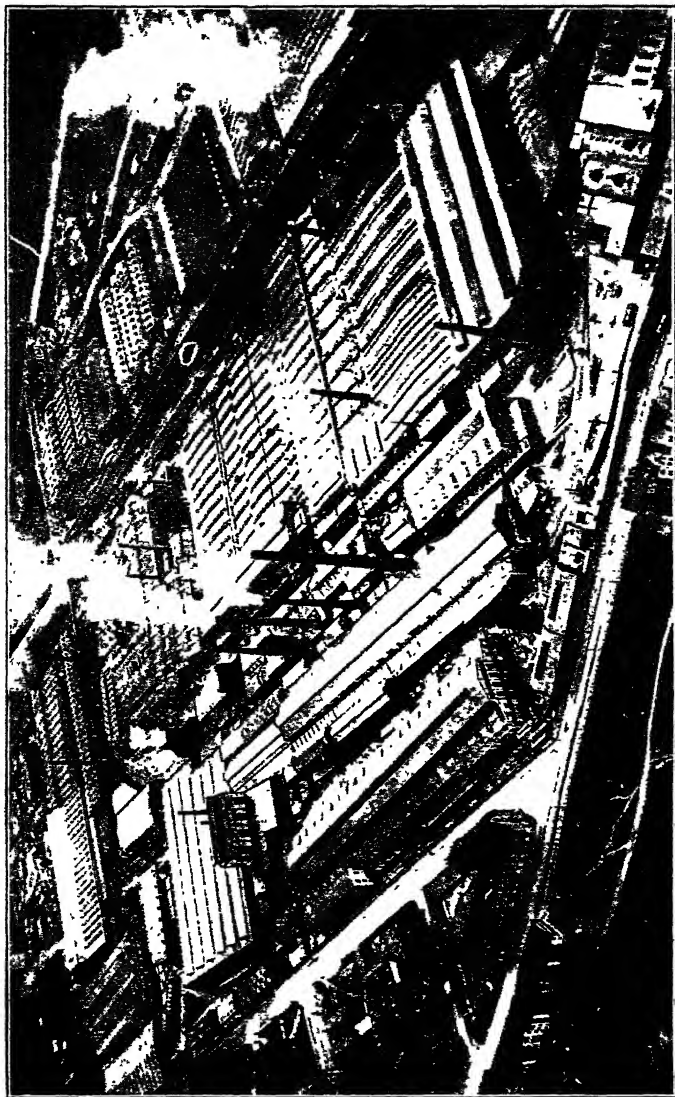
The engineering trade has of late years devoted much attention to specialization. Since the end of the War considerable advance has been recorded by the Electrical Engineering branch which now turns out practically every species of electrical output. The most recent addition is the manufacture of bulbs and burners, and requisites for telephony and telegraphy.

Progress has likewise been made of recent years by the Automobile industry, the annual capacity of which is about 6,000 cars. In this branch, too, successful efforts have been put forward for the specialization of production and concentration among the different concerns. In 1926, the concern of Laurin and Klement amalgamated with the Škoda Works.

A very well-developed branch of industry is the Enamelware trade, which turns out goods of high quality and exports a portion of its output overseas. The exports of iron and hardware, machinery,



Bata's Boot and Shoe Factories, Zlín.



The Skoda Works, Plzeň

electrical machinery and apparatus, and vehicles in 1924 attained a value of 1.071 million crowns, in 1926 a value of 1.640 millions. The value of the imports in these categories was 806 million crowns in 1924, and 1.098 millions in 1926, so that there was a favourable balance for Czechoslovakia of 266 million crowns in 1924, and of 542 millions in 1926.

An industry working most extensively for export trade is the Textile industry, every branch of which is represented. Except for small quantities of wool and flax, the whole of the raw material for all these branches must be imported. The Woollen trade possesses 450.000 spindles and 43.000 looms, and is concentrated largely in the surroundings of Brno and of Liberec. Ordinary material as well as very fine cloths are turned out that enjoy an excellent reputation and are exported in large quantities. In 1924 the value of Czechoslovakia's woollen exports was 1.705 million crowns, and in 1926, 1.611 millions. Besides cloths, the woollen industry turns out carpets, rugs and blankets, fezes and plush.

The most extensive branch of the textile industry in Czechoslovakia is the Cotton trade, which can boast of 3.545.000 spindles and 138.000 looms. This branch exports considerable quantities of cotton yarns, turns out very fine cotton fabrics, knitted goods and hosiery. The value of Czechoslovakia's exports of cotton goods in 1924 was 2.331 million crowns, in 1926, 2.484 millions.

The Czechoslovak Linen trade, with 280.000 spindles and 15.000 looms, is a very old-established branch. A large part of the output consists of fine quality fabrics which find a ready market abroad, especially in the United States of America. The Jute industry possesses 34.000 spindles, the Hemp trade 1.800. The value of the exports of flax, hemp and jute goods in 1924 was 584 million crowns, and in 1926, 574 millions.

The Silk industry is represented in Czechoslovakia especially by weaving mills which can boast of 14.000 looms. This industry is closely connected with the silk trade of Austria to which country the output is largely exported for improvement and finishing.

Connected with the textile industry proper is the Outfitting trade which gives employment to some 15.000 workers. The clothing is exported largely to the neighbouring countries.

After the War the manufacture of Artificial Silk was started, and is now carried on in three factories, the output going to the home market.

To the textile group there also belongs the well-developed production of Lace and Embroidery which is produced partly as a cottage industry and partly in factories. Mention may also be made of the flourishing output of braids, artificial flowers, felt and cloth hats.

Mention has already been made of the vast Timber resources of

the Republic which are the basis of extensive branches of industry producing manufactures of wood, cellulose and paper. The number of mills driven by steam and electric power is estimated at 1,100, and those run by water power 1,800. The production capacity is some 4,500,000 cubic metres of trimmed material. The timber trade is dependent largely upon export. In addition to boards, etc., there are exported considerable quantities of sleepers, pit props, ship's timber and telegraph poles.



China-Clay Pits at Horní Březno (Bohemia).

The timber trade has given rise to a Furniture trade, an important place in which is taken by the output of bentwood furniture that is exported into all parts of the world. There is also a considerable output of wooden pipes, toys and musical instruments of quality.

The Paper Industry in Czechoslovakia comprises 86 paper mills, 76 cardboard factories, 80 factories for roofing and 20 cellulose factories. The output largely exceeds the needs of home consumption so that this branch, too, is largely dependent upon export. Besides cigarette papers and tissue paper of outstanding quality, packing paper and newsprint paper is made in big quantities. The value of the exports of paper and paper goods in 1924 amounted to 267.2 million crowns, and that of imports 62.7 millions. In 1926 the figures were 375.1 millions and 96.7 millions respectively.

Of great importance for the economic position of Czechoslovakia are the Glass and Porcelain industries. Their importance is increased by the fact that both secure the bulk of their raw material within the country itself. In the glass industry every species of that commodity is manufactured. The hollow glass branch turns out every kind of glass from the simple varieties up to crystal glass *de luxe*. Bottle-making is carried on in 10 works, 7 of which are equipped with Ovens machines. Plate glass is made in 25 works. In this branch great progress has been marked of late by the installation of Fourcault machines. One of the special branches of the trade is the production of chemical and laboratory glass. Since the War the manufacture of negatives for the photographic industry has been introduced, advantage being taken of the output of excellent home glass for this purpose.

Closely connected with the glass trade is the so-called Jablonec (Gablonz) industry, the output of which consists of imitation jewelry, glass and metal ornaments, buttons, beads, bangles, etc. These articles are exported into all parts of the world, while bangles find a big market especially in India. The value of Czechoslovakia's exports of glass and glassware in 1924 was 1.264 million crowns, as compared with only 162 million crowns of imports. In 1926 the value of the exports was 1.169 millions and that of the imports no more than 34.2 millions. These figures make it clear what significance the output of glassware has for Czechoslovakia's foreign trade.

Equally highly developed is the Ceramics industry which is based especially on the large deposits of china clay in the Republic—a clay of the high quality essential for the porcelain industry. Kaolin (china clay) is raised to the amount of some 200,000 tons annually, a considerable quantity of which is exported, the main country of destination being Germany. In 1924 the exports of kaolin amounted to 184,290 tons, valued at 54.8 million crowns. The most important branch of the ceramics industry is the Porcelain branch with an annual capacity of 30,000 tons. Every kind of china from the ordinary species to art china and porcelain *de luxe* is turned out and exported to practically all countries. Stoneware, tiling, wall-facings, etc., are also made in large quantities. Stoneware and earthenware exports in 1924 attained a value of 384 million crowns, and in 1926 a value of 422.2 millions.

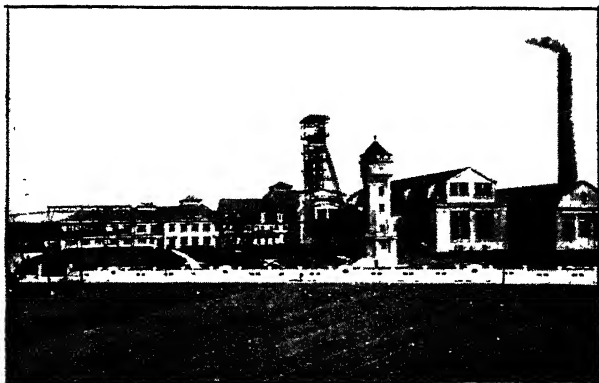
There is a large output of material for the building trades. Ten cement works possess a capacity of 1,000,000 tons per annum, and Portland cement is exported to all parts of the world. Lime is likewise exported in considerable quantities, mainly to Germany.

The Leather industry finds but a small proportion of its raw material in the Republic itself, and some 75% of it must be imported. At this moment there are about 260 concerns in this branch, which has developed considerably since the War. Before the War the main out-

put was sole leathers, but now great progress has been made in the production of uppers and chrome leathers.

The Czechoslovak Boot and Shoe Trade is well known. It developed considerably during the War and is now represented by some 110 concerns with mechanical power. The industry is dependent upon export trade, and, besides quality goods, exports also medium quality footwear.

The important Glove trade is concentrated largely in Central Bohemia and does a big export trade. In 1924 the value of its exports



The "Pokrok" — A Coalmine at Petřvald in Silesia.

was 124.5 million crowns, and in 1926, 126.3 millions. The main markets in 1926 were Germany (8.3 million crowns), Austria (1.3 millions), and the United States of America (1.7 millions).

The Chemical Industry, too, is on a high level of development in Czechoslovakia, and is centred particularly in large concerns on the banks of the river Elbe. The main output consists of superphosphates and other fertilizers, soda, potash, Epsom salts and sulphates, alkalis and hypermangan. There is also an extensive output of lac and paints.

Mention may also be made of the Mineral Oils industry which, previous to the War, worked up raw material procured mainly from Galicia. Czechoslovakia possesses 7 large petroleum refineries, capable of dealing annually with 40,000 cisterns of crude oil.

Since the War the manufacture of Edible Fats and Margarine has become more extensive. This industry is in part con-

nected with Dutch concerns, but the Republic has a number of independent undertakings.

Finally, there is a Match industry which turns out good quality ware that is popular in foreign markets. The industry is dependent upon export trade, and has to compete in particular with the Swedish match trade.

This brief outline will suffice to show the manifold character of the Czechoslovak industries, representing, as they do, practically every branch of output. Besides turning out various species of specialized output for the domestic market these industries compete, as regards the great bulk of their production, with the industries of other countries, and their capacity is very considerably beyond the needs of the home market, so that almost all are dependent on export trade and on the situation in foreign markets. It is, as has been said, an economic advantage for Czechoslovakia that the country's industries are so many-sided and varied in character, so that in case of a trade crisis in one branch a general compensation is found in the prosperity of some other branch.

3. Commerce and Banking

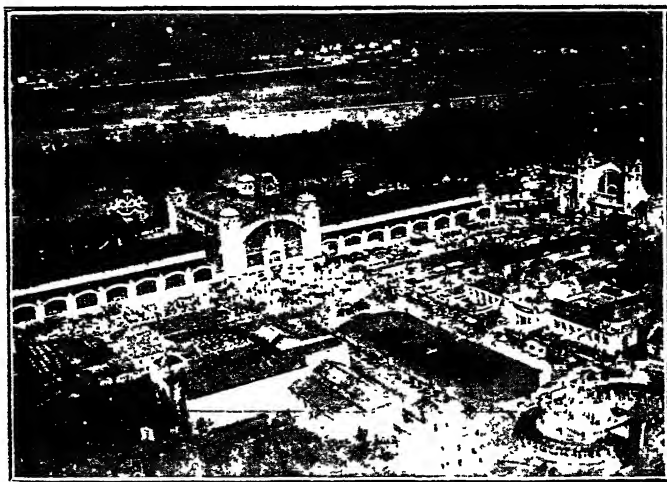
Czechoslovak commerce is not so highly developed as is the Republic's industry. The land-locked character of the country and the former concentration of the entire economic life in Vienna resulted in Czechoslovak output being largely re-exported via Vienna, Hamburg, Bremen and Trieste, and hindered the development of the country's own direct export trade. It was not until after the establishment of the Republic that a change took place, and that an independent Czechoslovak export and import trade could begin to develop. It is, of course, impossible to proceed precipitately and radically in bringing about a complete change by cutting off the accustomed paths of commerce. The change must be made by degrees and, as it were, by evolution, and it may be said that a good beginning has now been made in this direction.

Czechoslovak Banking is well-developed both as regards commercial banks and the popular institutes, such as savings banks, and building and credit societies. The establishment of an independent State in 1918 gave a great impulse to Czechoslovak banking. Previous to that date the more considerable banks had all been concentrated in Vienna. Independent banks grew up but slowly in the Czech lands, and they were only medium banks. The bulk of banking business was in the hands of the numerous branches of the Vienna banks. On the establishment of the new State in 1918 the Czechoslovak Government declined on principle to allow branches of foreign banks to do business within the Republic, and required the existing branches to be converted

into independent Czechoslovak concerns. The former domestic banking concerns developed rapidly through the concentration of the banking agenda at Prague instead of, as before, mainly in Vienna.

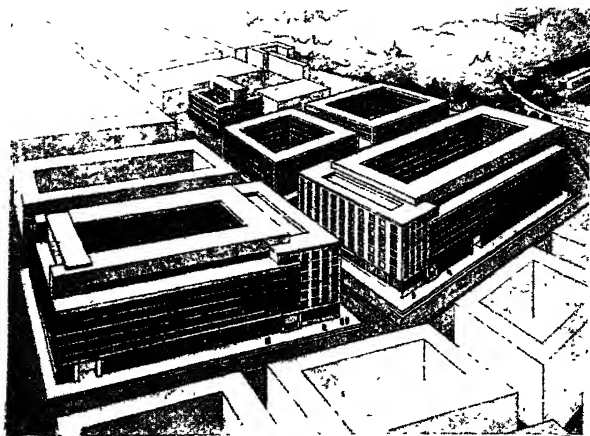
Prague Bourse, which had previously had but a local significance and followed the lead of the Vienna Bourse, grew rapidly and is now entirely independent of Vienna.

A great difference so far exists between the banking system in



Prague Samples Fair.

Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia on the one hand and in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia on the other. In Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia the ordinary banks serve mainly for financing industrial and commercial transactions, the savings banks take over deposit accounts and advance long-term credits, the mortgage banks and the cooperative credit institutes already mentioned advance agricultural credits, while the building and loan societies are responsible for the small credits required by the lower middle class. In Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia the cooperative credit system and the savings banks are only now in their first stages, their functions being taken over by commercial banks. These latter, however, are often only of local significance, and are something quite different from the normal conception of a "bank". Of late, a tendency has been observable to convert these banks into



*Prague Samples Fair. (Architect: M. Tyl)
Sketch for new buildings.*

cooperative credit institutes, into branches of the big banks, or to amalgamate several such into a single bank.

The following table shows the development of the joint-stock banks in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia:

<i>At close of year:</i>	<i>No of Banks:</i>	<i>Share Capital:</i>	<i>Reserves:</i>
		<i>(in millions of crowns)</i>	
1919	27	914.4	378.5
1921	39	1,548.2	742.8
1922	40	1,906.4	892.6
1923	34	1,821.4	954.1
1924	38	1,871.4	1,031.9
1925	32	1,858.9	1,072.9

The crisis which arose as a result of the appreciation in the exchange of the crown also caused the liquidation of several banks.

In Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia in 1927 there existed 158 banks (127 in Slovakia and 31 in Carpathian Ruthenia), which in the year 1925 had funds of their own to the amount of 568 million crowns, whereas the 33 banks in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia had, at the close of 1925, 2,931 millions. These figures will illustrate what has already been said above as to the minor character of the banks in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia

The number of savings banks in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia in 1926 was 376, that of loan societies 1,588, and that of the district agricultural credit societies 166.

The economic development of the Czechoslovak Republic is characterized to a certain extent by the fact that since 1919 the deposits in the banks and analogous institutes have steadily risen, that is, thrift has been on the increase. Deposits on current account have also increased to a considerable extent.

The joint-stock banks in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia likewise show a growth of deposit accounts. On the 31st of December 1919 this item was 1.137 million crowns, and on the 31st of December 1925 it was 2.318 millions. If we add the deposits in the books of the Postal Cheque Department where the balance at the end of 1926 totalled some 1.800 millions, and allowing for premiums paid to the insurance companies, we see that the country's total savings amount to almost 40.000 million crowns.

The deflation crisis in Czechoslovakia had an unfavourable effect upon banking. It caused the failure of three largish banks and menaced one or two others. This situation prompted the Government to proceed to a new legislative adjustment of the banks. Five acts of parliament were passed which profoundly affected the hitherto existing banking conditions.

These measures promulgated on the 10th of October 1924, relate to the following points: 1. deposit books, joint-stock banks and the



Liberec (Reichenberg) Samples Fair.

revision of banking institutions; 2. the duties of bankers in respect of the safe custody of securities; 3. moratorium for the protection of banking institutes and their creditors; 4. the establishment of a special fund to alleviate losses arising from post-War conditions, and 5. the establishment of a general Bank Fund for Czechoslovakia. The contents of these five measures may be summarised as follows: They adjusted in more exact legal form than hitherto the somewhat indefinite position of banks and their customers in regard to the deposit of securities for custody, they provided regulations adjusting the conditions on which joint-stock banks may accept deposit accounts, they laid down rules for the internal management of the banks and for their responsibilities, and re-introduced the obligation of being submitted to actuarial control. The banks were also prohibited from dealing in merchandise, and a special adjustment was made touching the amount of their reserve funds. The actuarial control of the banks will be carried out by a special audit commission which will be an autonomous organ under the control of the Ministry of Finance.

Very important are the provisions for the establishment of the two funds mentioned above. The fund for alleviating losses arising from post-War conditions is a kind of financial sanitation fund destined to make good, at least in part, the losses sustained through the deflation crisis by the banks and by the profit-earning and trading cooperatives. The monies are provided in part by the Government who contribute an annual sum not exceeding 50 million crowns, and in part by contributions from the banks themselves. The contributions of the banks are fixed on the basis of the capital, the scale varying according to the amount of dividend paid by each bank from $\frac{1}{4}\%$ to $1\frac{1}{4}\%$. Savings banks, loan societies and credit cooperatives contribute 10% of their net earnings.

The second fund, the so-called general Bank Fund, is intended to cover losses which may be suffered in the future by the banks. To this fund every banking concern contributes on the same scale, namely, $1\frac{1}{2}\%$ of the interest paid or credited to depositors on the amount of their deposit or current accounts.

This liquidation of the losses suffered by the banks as a result of the deflation crisis will very considerably strengthen the economic life of the country, and banking will be to a large extent consolidated thereby.

2. THE CURRENCY AND THE STATE FINANCES

1. The Currency

The economic development of Czechoslovakia depends upon the stability of the currency and has thus differed very substantially from that in the neighbouring countries. By stamping all the Austro-Hungarian banknotes in circulation within the territories of the Republic on the 26th of February 1919, Czechoslovakia created a currency of her own. The circulation of paper money, the current accounts in the books of the Bank of Issue and the treasury bills at that moment represented a total sum of about 10.000 million crowns. By an enactment of the 6th of March 1919 there was created the "Bank Office of the Ministry of Finance" to take charge of the currency, and in its statutes this Office was expressly prohibited from granting any credit whatsoever to the State, while it was provided that with the exception of the banknotes that had been taken over on the occasion of the stamping (to the amount of some 7.000 million crowns) no further notes should be issued except such as were backed by gold cover, foreign currency or commercial bills (discount and advances). This adjustment determined only the formal limits for the issue of circulation. Material limits were not fixed, so that practically the extent of such issue depended upon the credit policy of the Bank of Issue. The Czechoslovak currency was created as paper currency in the form of State notes, and this currency is managed according to the principles of the Bank of Issue. On the stamping of the banknotes above referred to, a considerable contraction of the circulation had taken place, for, according to Dr. Rašín's plan, a certain quantity of the uncovered State notes in circulation were to be withdrawn by means of a capital levy and increment duty, and the currency thus rehabilitated. The sums withheld on the stamping of the notes represented a forced loan or a payment in advance on account of the capital levy to be imposed later on. On the occasion of the stamping there was left in circulation, inclusive of current accounts and treasury bills, some 7.000 million crowns of uncovered notes. In January 1926 this amount had sunk to 5.085 millions, in January 1927 to 4.788 millions, and in January 1928 to 4.438 millions.

Czechoslovakia pursued a policy based on the statutes of the Bank Office, and did not cause any inflation of the paper currency. The exchange value of the crown depended during the early post-War years on the development of the currencies in the neighbouring countries, notably on that of the German mark. Not until the close of 1921 did the Czechoslovak crown exchange emancipate itself from that of the mark. Up to that period the Zurich Bourse had been decisive for the

exchange value of the crown. The Czechoslovak exchange at Zurich on the 21st of February 1919 was 29 centimes; on the 30th of June 1919, 28.7 centimes; on the 5th of February 1920, 5 centimes; on the 30th of December 1920, 12.7 centimes; on the 31st of October 1921, 5.1 centimes, and on the 31st of December 1921, 7.6 centimes. At this juncture a rise of the crown set in and by 30th June 1922 the exchange was 10.1 centimes; on the 10th of October 1922, 19.2 centimes, and on the 30th of December 1922 it was 16.4 centimes. In New York the first official quotation was one of 1.20 cents on the 17th of September 1921; the lowest quotation was 0.94 cents on the 2nd of November 1921. In January 1922, the exchange was 1.95 cents, while the highest level was that of 3.76 cents attained on the 26th of August 1922. From January 1923 onwards the exchange of the Czechoslovak crown has been stabilized, varying at Zurich between 16 and 17 centimes and in New York between 2.90 and 3 cents. During the past few years the crown exchange has been absolutely stable, the New York rate being 2.96375 cents.

The sudden rise in the crown exchange in the course of the year 1922 (when it appreciated by nearly 100%) caused an economic crisis which expressed itself in a rapid increase of unemployment—the figure exceeded 400,000—in bankruptcies and liquidations, in a crisis of the State finances, in forced sales, and subsequently in a decline of foreign trade. There arose a big discrepancy between the purchasing power of the crown at home and abroad. Inland production for a time lost its ability to compete. As, however, it was essential for several reasons to maintain the exchange value of the crown, no other course was open than to accommodate domestic prices to the foreign value of the crown. This process was a most painful one, and called for great sacrifices. It was at the same time, of course, also a process of purification such as the economy of every country had to pass through after the War and after the era of inflation. In the course of the deflation crisis Czechoslovakia passed through that process of financial and economic sanitation which other countries had to pass through later, after the stabilization of their currencies. On the whole, thanks to the self-sacrificing spirit of all classes of the population and the strength of the State authority, Czechoslovakia succeeded in accommodating herself fairly speedily to the new price conditions.

The sharp deflation crisis, however, showed that a further rise in the level of the crown exchange would be of no economic advantage, but, on the contrary, would be dangerous. Efforts were therefore put forward to maintain the stability of the exchange. By January 1923 these efforts had been successful, and from that time the exchange of the Czechoslovak crown has undergone no vacillation of consequence. By an enactment of the 23rd of April 1925, amending

and supplementing the Bank of Issue Act of the 14th of April 1920, this stabilization of the crown received legal sanction. The law lays it down in express terms that the Bank is under the obligation of seeing to the maintenance of the relation of the Czechoslovak crown to a foreign undepreciated gold standard currency at the level of the past two years. The preamble to the enactment fixes this level at \$2.90-\$3.03 per 100 Czechoslovak crowns on the New York stock exchange. By this enactment the Czechoslovak monetary unit has been defined and fixed in permanent relation to the Dollar.

The Bank Office of the Ministry of Finance was superseded in April 1926 by a joint-stock issue bank—the National Bank of Czechoslovakia. As regards currency regulations the law provides that the Bank must possess cover, consisting to the extent of at least three-fourths of gold, and of foreign undepreciated currency and valuta, to the proportion of at least 20% of the total banknote circulation, inclusive of bills payable at sight, but exclusive of the State note debt. This cover is to be increased by 1% annually, so that in 15 years it will reach the level of 35%. No limit is laid down for the extent of the circulation, so that the provision as to cover is not of an absolute character. The law provides that should the prescribed cover not be attained, the Bank must pay a banknote tax on the difference between the actual circulation and the amount of circulation prescribed by law. The scale of this tax is to be equal to the Bank's discount rate plus 1% if the difference between the actual and the prescribed cover is not more than 2%, with an increase of 1½% for every further 2% of difference between the actual and prescribed cover.

Czechoslovak currency, which has thus been stabilized by law, is not a currency exchangeable for gold, but is a sort of gold exchange standard.

The following table of data taken from the returns of the Bank Office and the National Bank of Czechoslovakia indicate the development of the currency:

<i>Assets:</i>	31 Jan. 1921	31 Jan. 1922	31 Jan. 1923	31 Jan. 1924	15 Dec. 1925	15 Dec. 1926	15 Dec. 1927
	(in millions of Czechoslovak crowns)						
Gold and silver reserve	165	564	822	1,038	1,032	1,034	1,057
Balances abroad							
and foreign currencies	165	880	409	1,126	1,176	1,910	2,293
Bills discounted	1,794	1,092	496	722	684	148	49
Securities discounted	—	255	143	8	27	—	—
Advances on collaterals	2,207	1,523	1,306	780	461	58	24
Uncovered							
State note debt balance	8,237	7,944	7,177	6,072	5,106	4,832	4,559
Sundry assets	555	991	392	270	603	938	906

Liabilities.

Notes in circulation	10.888	11.230	9.222	8.810	7.519	7.054	7.197
Cheque account balances	857	469	798	729	1.397	1.719	1.466
Short term cash vouchers	286	227	125	15	4.5	1.8	1.1
Sundry liabilities	514	1.321	537	459	170	352	356

The above figures show a steady improvement in the position of the Bank of Issue. The uncovered State note debt which originally totalled 10 185 million crowns had dropped on the 7th of January 1928 to 4.438 millions. The enactment amending the Bank of Issue Act provided that if this uncovered item falls below 5000 millions, the further receipts from the capital levy may be devoted—to an extent not exceeding two-thirds—to redeeming the State bonds issued in 1921 to the amount of some 1600 million crowns. These have so far been redeemed to the amount of 338 million crowns. The cover for the fiduciary circulation and the cheque account balances amounted on the 7th of January 1928 to 38.9%, and consisted of the gold and silver reserve, balances abroad and foreign currency.

The stability of the Czechoslovak crown is secured both by law and absolutely *de facto*. The National Bank possesses, besides its own reserves of metal, foreign bills and currency, a Revolving Credit secured from the United States of America.

The last few years have brought with them a great improvement in the money market. The deflation crisis produced a shortage of credit, and for currency reasons the Bank Office was compelled to pursue a strict policy in regard to the granting of advances. A certain improvement took place in 1925 in connection with the better credit conditions which had arisen in the neighbouring countries. Czechoslovakia, however, was at a disadvantage in that the rates of interest paid in the neighbouring countries which had passed through a big inflation period were much higher than in Czechoslovakia, and therefore the shortage of credit still greater. There was a danger that capital from Czechoslovakia would flow away into those countries.

Czechoslovakia was therefore compelled to retain in force such exchange regulations as would prevent an undue flow of capital out of the country. As conditions improved in the neighbouring countries, Czechoslovakia was able, in harmony with the general tendencies in the international money market, to commence in 1927 the gradual abolition of her exchange restrictions. At the same time it became possible to reduce the discount rate. On the 1st of December 1925 the rate was reduced from 7% to 6½%, on the 13th of January from 6½% to 6%, on the 27th of October 1926 from 6% to 5½%, and on the 8th of January 1927 to 5%.

During the past two years the money market has been very liquid, a condition of things to which, in particular, the financial policy of the State has contributed, for the finance authorities have not only refrained from drawing funds from that market, but have successively paid off various items of floating debt. The result has been a substantial improvement in the price of Government stock, of which the 6% categories already are over par, while the 5½% securities are approaching parity. The development of the investment stock market may be best judged by the fact that the average return made by this class of



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Minister of Finance.*



*Dr. Vilém Pospíšil,
Governor of the National Bank
of Czechoslovakia.*

security two years ago was 7.3%, that in 1926 the return fell to 6.2%, in 1927 to 5.7%, while at the beginning of 1928 it was no more than 5.5%. This process continues. Parallel with this movement the bank deposit rates and the interest on loans made to the industries have been reduced. It should be emphasized that the abundance of money and capital on the money market continues, despite the fact that Czechoslovakia possesses no foreign credits of any considerable extent and that the finance authorities refuse to allow foreign loans to be raised for public purposes.

The year 1925 brought with it, on the whole, a consolidation of the country's economic conditions. It was apparent that the deflation crisis had been largely overcome, and that economic activities were reassuming a normal course. Most branches of industry showed good employment, even if returns were small and even if the burden was still felt

of the unpaid debts which had been incurred at a time when the value of the crown had been low. The satisfactory state of employment in the industries was reflected in the small amount of unemployment that prevailed during the year. In the closing months of the year the number of unemployed persons steadily declined. In January 1925 the unemployment figure was 88,631, in March 71,884, in July it had dropped to 40,000. In 1926 the figure rose temporarily, but in October 1927 it had dropped to a record level (35,777).

The improvement in the economic situation is likewise reflected in a decline in insolvency. In 1924 the bankruptcies numbered 535, in 1925 they were 458, and in 1926, 492. Arrangements for the benefit of creditors in 1924 numbered 1,907, in 1925, 1,981, and in 1926, 2,534. In 1927 there was a further drop in the total insolvency figure.

Economic consolidation is likewise shown in the movement of the commodity price indices which have displayed a certain downward tendency. The wholesale price index in January 1925 was 1045, or in gold parity 151.4 (on the basis of June 1914 = 100); in January 1926 it was 966 (in gold parity 140.8), and in January 1927, 979 (in gold parity 143.1). This price stability existed as early as 1924, for in January of that year the wholesale index was 974 (in gold parity 140.1). In July of that year it was 953 (in gold 137.7), in December 1924, 1024 (in gold 148.4). Price stability has, of course, had a favourable influence upon economic conditions generally.

The year 1927 has, on the whole, been a year of favourable economic development and trade recovery. The money market has been permanently easy, with credit increasingly cheap, a fact which has benefitted every species of economic enterprise. Building activities, in particular, have developed; and have given an impulse to a whole series of branches of industry, the purchasing power of the agricultural population has substantially improved as a consequence of the corn duties, and the demand for farm machinery and other essential equipment equivalent to productive investment has increased. The volume of foreign trade has largely advanced, and a large favourable balance of trade has been again maintained. The unemployment figure has fallen to the lowest level recorded since 1921. Railway freight traffic attained in 1927 the biggest figures as yet reached.

2. The State Finances

Developments in respect of Czechoslovakia's public finances during the past few years have been on the whole favourable. The level of State expenditure has been practically stabilized, as is seen from the following comparative Budget figures:

	<i>Expenditure:</i>	<i>Revenue:</i>
	(in millions of crowns)	
1925	9.573.5	9.301.3
1926	10 070.2	10.085.7
1927	9.703.5	9.723.9
1928	9.536.07	9.562.2

The Budget figures for the year 1925 showed a deficit of 272.2 million crowns, but for 1926 there appeared a surplus of 15.4 millions, in 1927 one of 20.4 millions, and for 1928 a surplus of 25.2 millions.

It should be noted that, commencing with the year 1925 the Budget estimates do not show the gross expenditure and receipts of the State enterprises, but merely the net balance of the year's workings.

Since 1927 the Budget has, in form, been divided into four groups. The first group comprises the actual State administration, the second group deals with the national debt, the third group comprises the State enterprises, and the fourth shows the contributions made to the local government bodies. The individual sections of the Budget for 1928 show the following figures:

The State Administration budget shows expenditure of 9.536.07 million crowns and revenue of 9 562.2 mililons.

The budget of the National Debt shows a total expenditure of 2.354.3 millions, or 218.6 millions less than in 1927. The total expenditure includes sinking fund payments to the extent of 481.5 millions.

The State Enterprises section shows expenditure of 8.064.1 million crowns, and receipts of 9.222.3 millions, so that the net profits to be handed over to the Treasury amount to 1.303.2 millions, that is, 151 millions more than in 1927.

The group in which is shown the share of the local autonomous bodies and funds in the State taxes and dues accounts for 1.158.4 million crowns for the year 1928, that is, 119 millions more than in 1927.

The State revenue according to the Budget for 1928 is made up as follows:

Receipts from undertakings run on ordinary commercial lines amount to 1.348.08 millions. Receipts of exclusively public character 8 214.1 millions. These latter include taxes and dues to the amount of 5.008 millions, customs duties to the amount of 1.100 millions, stamp duties and

fees to the amount of 872.8 millions, and miscellaneous receipts to the amount of 633.3 millions.

The fact should be emphasized that since 1926 it has been laid down as a principle of the State finances that no further loans be raised. This applies absolutely to credits designed to cover current expenditure, but it applies also—as far as possible—to capital investments for the State enterprises, especially the railways and the postal service.

To meet the needs of productive investment on the railways the Finance Act allots the whole amount of their own earnings to the railways, in addition to 20% of the transport tax.

For productive investment purposes the profits of the Post Office in 1927 were also retained by that Department, but in 1928 these earnings will have to be handed in to the Treasury. The Post Office, however, has been permitted to raise a loan of 296.7 million crowns in 1928, the major part of which is to be spent on extending the network of telephone cables.

The results of the policy of restraint pursued by the finance authorities are seen also in the circumstances that the national debt is not increasing, but is, on the contrary, being gradually reduced. Thus, in the Budget for 1927 the national debt figures at 34.945 million crowns, in the Budget for 1928 at 34.385 millions. Of this, the internal debt in 1927 amounted to 24.049 millions, and in 1928 to 23.592 millions, while the external debt in 1927 was 6.495 8 millions, and in 1928, 6.392.9 millions. Debt arising out of the Peace Treaties amounted in both years to the sum of 4.400 millions.

The actual State accounts for the past few years likewise show a favourable state of affairs. The final accounts for the year 1926 show actual revenue of 13.469.8 million crowns, and actual expenditure of 11.117.1 millions, so that there was a surplus of 2.352.7 millions.

The yield of the taxes and dues for 1927 has been extremely favourable, and exceeded the Budget estimates. The comparatively satisfactory state of the public finances, secured by increasing economy in administration and by a more rigorous whipping in of taxes, enabled the Government to proceed in 1927 to introduce a reform of direct taxation which is destined to secure considerable concessions to taxpayers, and especially to industrial undertakings. The reform applies in particular to the income tax, the special tax on earnings and the general tax on earnings. As a result of the passing of this measure the Treasury authorities will have to reckon with a certain falling off in the revenue from direct taxes.

Allowance for this has been made in the Budget estimates for 1928, in which the receipts from these taxes are fixed at 374 millions less than in 1927.

It is the endeavour of the finance authorities of Czechoslovakia to

adapt the taxation system to the needs of the country's economy and especially to the structure of its industrial production which is so largely dependent upon a satisfactory export trade.

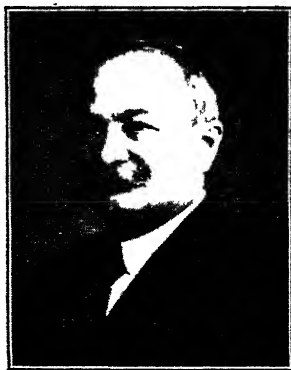
The absolute consolidation of the State finances is clearly shown by the existence of an effective surplus for the last three years.

3. COMMERCIAL POLICY

The most important item in Czechoslovakia's balance of payments is the favourable balance of trade. In view of the high level of



*Thomas Bata,
an industrial leader.*



*Dr. Jaroslav Preiss,
general manager and vicepresident
of the Živnostenská banka.*

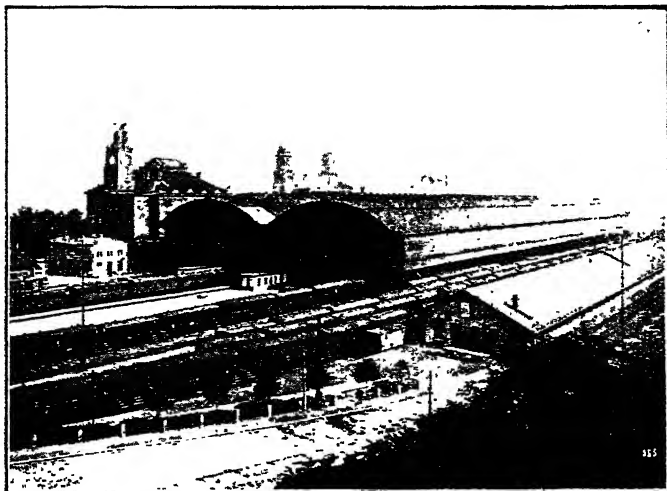
economic development attained by the Republic and of the export character of a large proportion of its industry, it is no wonder that Czechoslovakia is largely dependent on the development of conditions in the world's markets. In respect of commercial policy very numerous tasks face the Republic, since the country's export trade comprises so many and varied categories of merchandise, and since markets must be maintained or sought in practically all countries. For these reasons the adjustment of commercial relations has more significance for Czechoslovakia than for many other countries.

In the early years following the War Czechoslovakia's position in this respect was one of considerable difficulty. The country's industries had lost their former extensive and protected market. In place of the old Austrian market with its population of 52 millions, Czechoslovakia

was now limited to a home market with a population of only 13½ millions. The neighbouring States which up to then had been the main market for Czechoslovak goods were in a deplorable economic condition and as a consequence of the uninterrupted depreciation of their currencies could purchase little—added to which the German and Austrian industries in particular indulged in a system of dumping. At the outset Czechoslovakia had, of course, to protect herself against the influx of foreign goods. Then there were exchange difficulties, and as customs duties did not provide a sufficient flexible protection at a period of great exchange fluctuations, a system of import prohibitions and a licence regime was inaugurated, under which an import licence was required for the import of any species of merchandise. This system resulted, of course, in advantage being taken of it to support the establishment of new branches of industry in the interior, and thus a protectionist tendency received support. The system of licences was originally intended to be abolished in 1922, but this was made impossible by the sudden rise in the exchange of the Czechoslovak crown. The opening of the frontiers at that moment, when the home industries were producing their output at greater cost than before, would have meant increasing the already serious crisis. From 1923 onwards, however, the licence system has been steadily reduced and little of it remains, import prohibitions have been abolished autonomously and by way of treaty, this having been particularly the case on the conclusion of a commercial treaty with Austria which came into operation on the 1st of January 1925. The present situation is such that the export of all commodities, with some very few exceptions in the categories of raw materials and foodstuffs, is now free from control. Imports, too, from those countries with which commercial treaties have been concluded, are for the most part decontrolled, and import licences are necessary only for some few items. It is to be expected that in the very near future the licence system will be completely abolished and that import prohibitions will be limited to some few exceptional cases, where special considerations demand their retention.

Czechoslovakia's customs tariff is still the old Austro Hungarian tariff of 1906, the basic duties of which have been retained, multiplied, of course, by coefficients, the last adjustment of which was made in December 1921. This adjustment which came into force on the 1st of January 1922 again raised the coefficients, so that when the exchange of the crown began to rise subsequently the customs protection afforded to Czechoslovak output was very considerable. The duties have been since reduced by commercial and tariff treaties, of which the first was one concluded with France on the 17th of August 1923. From that date the customs protection has been steadily reduced through the medium of such treaties.

The commercial treaties concluded by Czechoslovakia are all based upon most-favoured-nation treatment. As a country dependent upon export trade, Czechoslovakia has interest in seeing that her goods do not fare worse in foreign markets than the goods of other countries. It is the endeavour of those responsible for Czechoslovakia's commercial policy to secure an adjustment of her commercial relations, as far as possible, with every other country. In this they have been very largely successful. Czechoslovakia possesses commercial treaties, based on most-favoured-nation treatment with all European States



Wilson Station, Prague.

The Republic has also concluded a series of customs-tariff treaties, including that with France in 1923, with Italy in 1924, with Austria in 1925, treaties with Greece, Spain, Poland and Belgium in the same year, and treaties with Switzerland and Hungary in 1926-27.

With non-European countries Czechoslovakia has concluded treaties based on most-favoured-nation treatment: with the United States of America, with Japan and with Canada. It may be noted that most of the British colonies and dominions have associated themselves with the commercial treaty concluded with Great-Britain, so that in the British overseas dominions Czechoslovak goods enjoy most-favoured-nation treatment.

The above facts show that Czechoslovakia's position in respect of commercial policy is by no means unfavourable. for Czechoslovak goods in most countries receive equal treatment with goods of other origin and do not suffer from differential treatment.

It has been already said that Czechoslovakia's foreign trade is the most important item in the country's balance of payments. The Republic, so far, possesses only preliminary data concerning the balance of payments for the year 1925. According to that data, in Section I,

Million crowns:

Group I. (Foreign trade and supply of electric current) shows a favourable balance of	1.195.4	
Group II. (Mutual service) an unfavourable balance of	185.8	
Group III. (Transactions without payment) a favourable balance of		340.9
Group IV. (Income) an unfavourable balance of .	610.8	
Group V. (Miscellaneous) an unfavourable balance of	56.4	
		<hr/> 1.536.3
		853.0
Groupe I—V. favourable balance		<hr/> 683.3

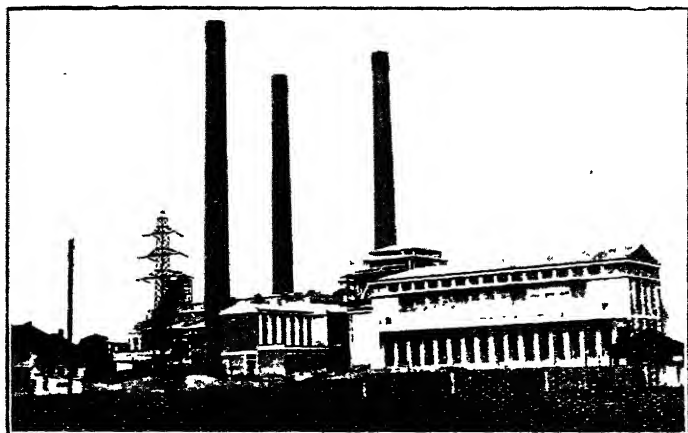
In section 2, Foreign Debt (Loans and service) there is an unfavourable balance of 802.8 millions, and in Section 3, National Wealth, there is finally a favourable balance of 1.426.7 millions.

Total Balance:

Section 1.	683.3	—
Section 2.	802.8	—
Section 3.		1.426.7
Section 4. (Balance of price and speculation differences)		72.4
To balance omissions and mistakes	13	
	<hr/> 1.499.1	<hr/> 1.499.1

From Group IV. it will be seen that the balance of annual payments to other countries on account of capital investment is highly unfavourable to Czechoslovakia, for other countries, particularly Austria, have still a large share in Czechoslovak enterprises, and considerable time must elapse before developments bring these holdings into the hands of Czechoslovak capital. Nor does tourist traffic bring any very considerable gain to Czechoslovakia (the balance is included in group III.). Another balance unfavourable to Czechoslovakia is that of business agencies, banking, forwarding agencies and insurance. Thus it is clear that the main pillar of Czechoslovakia's balance of payments and at the same

time of the Republic's currency is the foreign trade balance, and that it is of vital importance for the country's economy at this juncture that a favourable balance be maintained. And indeed the trade balance for the years 1920 to 1927 is favourable to a very considerable extent, and this favourable balance has not only been able to set off the deficit on the other items of the balance of payments, and particularly the deflation losses, but has also provided the means to enable the shares in Czechoslovak undertakings which were largely in foreign ownership, to be purchased and repatriated to Czechoslovakia.



Electrical Power Station at Ervénice (Architect: M. Hübschman).

The value of the exports and imports for the years 1920 to 1927 is shown in the following table:

	Imports: (in millions of crowns)	Exports: (in millions of crowns)	Imports: (in millions of dollars)	Exports: (in millions of dollars)
1920 . . .	23.384	27.569	352.08	391.5
1921 . . .	22.433	27.311	275.6	385.6
1922 . . .	12.695	18.086	285.2	406.3
1923 . . .	10.222	12.573	298.04	366.5
1924 . . .	15.854	17.035	461.5	495.87
1925 . . .	17.594	18.799	519	554
1926 . . .	15.262	17.848	452	529
1927 . . .	17.930	20.127	532	598

It will be seen that the trade balance has been favourable for the whole of the period, and in the individual years was:

	In millions of crowns:	In millions of dollars:
1920	4.185	59.43
1921	4.878	29.95
1922	5.390	121.12
1923	2.351	68.54
1924	1.180.6	34.36
1925	1.205	35.3
1926	2.586	76.6
1927	2.197	65.2

Throughout this period of seven years the total favourable balance of Czechoslovakia's foreign trade has amounted to 21.992 million crowns, or 485 million dollars. The volume, too, of the trade has steadily risen.

Imports and exports in 1927 (with the 1926 figures in brackets) consisted, according to the Brussels nomenclature, of the following items:

	Imports:		Exports:	
	(in millions of Czechoslovak crowns)			
1. Live stock	(605.5)	724.7	(55.0)	48.1
2. Foodstuffs and beverages	(3,420.3)	3,790.8	(3,345.6)	2,871.3
3. Raw materials	(7,202.3)	8,497.2	(3,462.3)	3,997.3
4. Finished goods	(4,029.5)	4,903.1	(10,877.7)	13,248.1
5. Precious metals and specie	(4.1)	14.2	(106.9)	12.4

The imports in 1926, according to production classification were: agricultural, forestry and fishery, 35.52% (in 1925, 40.46%), coal and mining output, 6.59% (in 1925, 5.99%), industrial output, 57.86% (in 1925, 52.71%).

The exports in 1926, similarly classified, were: agricultural, forestry and fishery output, 9.43% (in 1925, 10.17%), coal and mining output, 6.05% (in 1925, 4.71%), industrial output, 83.92% (in 1925, 84.91%). Under industrial output must be understood, of course, not merely finished goods but also semi-manufactures. There has been, however, an increase in the exports of finished goods. In 1923 the average monthly relation of finished goods to the entire volume of export was 51%, in 1924 it was 59%, in 1925, 61.89%, in 1926, 60.95%, and in the first 11 months of 1927 it was 62.23%. The industrial character of the Czechoslovak State is apparent from the composition of its foreign trade.

The leading items of import in 1926 and their value in millions of crowns were as follows:

Cotton, yarns and cotton goods	2,122.9
Grain, malt, pulse, flour and other milled products and rice	1,871
Wool, yarns, and woollen goods	1,573.3
Fats	628.2
Silk and silk goods	551.9
Base metals and manufactures thereof	529.6
Cattle	601.9
Animal products	415
Minerals, ores	401
Iron and iron goods	421.6
Machinery and apparatus	461.5
Chemicals and chemical by-products	334
Timber, coal and peat	548.6
Tobacco	462.2
Colonial produce	317.9
Leather and leather goods	217.2
Lac, varnish, paint, medicines and perfumes	194
Electrical machinery and apparatus	214.5
Rubber and guttapercha	208.2

It will be seen from the above that among the imports those of food-stuffs and raw materials preponderate.

The main items of Czechoslovak export in 1926 were as follows :

Cotton, yarns, and cotton goods	2,444.1
Sugar	2,247.2
Timber, coal and peat	1,751.8
Wool, yarns and woollen goods	1,610.7
Glass and glassware	1,169.1
Iron and iron goods	1,253.4
Fruit and vegetables	729.8
Machinery and apparatus	337.9
Flax, hemp, jute, and yarns and goods thereof	574.5
Grain, malt, pulse, flour and other milled products	781.3
Silk and silk goods	419.1
Leather and leather goods	699.1
Clothing and made-up articles	525.9
Porcelain	375.7
Paper and paper goods	375.1

As regards the destination of Czechoslovakia's export trade, there is observable a gradual diminution of exports to the neighbouring countries, and a growth of exports to more distant countries, particularly to overseas.

The direction taken by Czechoslovakia's export trade is shown by the following table, which gives the monthly average in percentage of the entire export:

	Succession States:	Ger- many:	Other countries:
1920 . . .	56	12	32
1921 . . .	52	11	37
1922 . . .	41	18	40
1923 . . .	37	20	43
1924 . . .	40	19	40
1925 . . .	37	23	40

As regards the individual countries, their share in Czechoslovakia's imports (according to value) in 1926 was as follows: Germany 21.21%, Austria 7.37%, Italy 2.21%, U. S. A. 4.98%, Hungary 6.74%, Poland 7.18%, France 4.44%, Holland 3.30%, Rumania 3.15%, Great Britain 3.95%, Yugoslavia 3.83%, and Switzerland 2.14%.

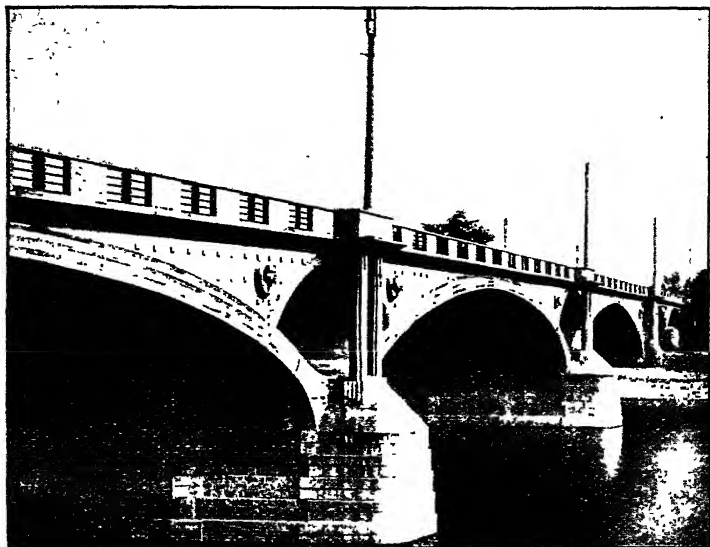
The proportion of Czechoslovakia's exports taken by the various countries in 1926 was: Austria 16.26%, Germany 19.90%, Great Britain 8.53%, Hungary 6.88%, Italy 2.47%, Yugoslavia 5.40%, Rumania 4.67%, U. S. A. 4.73%, Poland 2.04%, Switzerland 2.89%, France 1.42%, and Holland 1.54%.

In the period from January to November 1927 Germany occupies first place among the countries of destination of Czechoslovakia's exports with 3,757 million crowns worth, Austria comes second with 2,403 millions, Hungary third with 1,304 millions and Great Britain fourth with 1,194 millions.

* * *

The outline here given of Czechoslovakia's economic situation shows that the Republic possesses all the necessary conditions for further favourable economic development. The country is rich in national resources, its agriculture is on a high level, its industries developed and producing high quality goods that have gained a firm footing in the world's markets, and it has a well-ordered banking system. Since the establishment of the Republic every effort has been made to restore as speedily as possible normal conditions in the country's economic life. If we now review the economic situation of Czechoslovakia we shall see that much of this effort has been successful. The Republic possesses a currency that is stabilized in relation to the Dollar, the State finances are in equilibrium, credit conditions are improving and are approaching those that prevail in the West of Europe, the industries for the most part are well employed, social conditions are fairly satisfactory, unemployment is comparatively insignificant, exports

and imports are increasing in volume and the foreign trade balance continues to be favourable, while the whole line of economic development shows an upward tendency. This is not to say, of course, that the economic consolidation of Czechoslovakia is absolutely complete. There still remain for solution some important problems, but the foundations for consolidation have been well and firmly laid. One of the most important of Czechoslovakia tasks for the future is, by pursuing a well-



The Hlávka Bridge, Prague. (Architect: A. Janák.)

planned and consistent economic policy, to aim at improving the standard of living of the population. The actual wages of the workers and the salaries of the employees are in effect much lower than in the industrial countries of the West of Europe. This state of affairs existed before the War. An improvement can only be attained by degrees, by work, and by increased production. It will therefore be the aim of all those who are responsible for Czechoslovakia's economic development to pursue such a policy as will augment output, increase the nation's prosperity, and thus raise the standard of living. Czechoslovakia possesses all the conditions essential for such development.

THE LAND REFORM IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA

A little more than forty per cent of the population of Czechoslovakia live by agriculture. Agricultural production, moreover, has attained a very high level in Czechoslovakia, especially in the Czech lands. Before the War the area of those countries did not represent more than a quarter of the arable land in former Austria proper, and yet, if the agricultural production of the Czech lands is compared to the entire agricultural production of Cis-Leithania, it is seen that the Czech lands produced 35 per cent of the wheat, 48 per cent of the rye, 59 per cent of the barley and 90 per cent of the sugar beet. Actually 15 per cent of the world's production of beet sugar comes from Czechoslovakia.

Social conditions and the system of ownership were, however, less favourable to agriculture. From a total of more than 2,000,000 agricultural undertakings more than half were of the smallest dimensions, being of an area of 2 hectares or less. The land falling under the heading of this category did not form more than approximately 6 per cent of all the soil. On the other hand, about 2,000 undertakings had an extent of more than 500 hectares and represented about one third of the soil of the State. The peasant class average was numerically lower than in Germany; in the Eastern portions of the State, there are whole stretches of territory where they do not exist at all. Moreover, the large estates grew continually, to the prejudice of the small and medium sized undertakings.

This preponderance of large and entailed estates so crushing for the remaining properties, caused grave inconveniences. It was one of the underlying causes of the seasonal or permanent emigration of agricultural workers, although the rapid industrialization of the Czech lands contributed enormously to the retention of the peasant workers. Further, the system of large properties involves a falling off of the family undertaking and as a result increases the number of paid workers. The price of the services of the hired worker increased while, at the same time, his quality depreciated. The members of a peasant family interest themselves keenly on the development of general exploitation, the remuneration of the exploitation of the family is generally superior to that of the large properties, which, during moments of social tension, play a role more or less identical with that of industry. It is thus quite natural that broad masses of peasants and people who possessed no land regarded the land reform as the most sure method of ameliorating the situation; moreover, the restoration of the Czechoslovak State having brought to them political democracy, they wished also to establish the principles of democracy in the economic sphere. The townspeople, so gravely affected by the revictualling crisis following the World War, associated themselves spontaneously with the peasants, as did also

the industrial and commercial classes, who desired to see the broad masses in the country districts in a better material situation as a basis for a strengthening of the internal industrial market. Under the former Monarchy, the home market embraced 47 millions people; to-day it totals 14 millions, although three quarters of the industry of former Austria is centred in Czechoslovakia. On the other hand it is generally admitted that the small and average sized undertakings furnish more people with a means of livelihood in proportion to area than do the large estates, that they tend to retain villagers in the villages, and that they insure to the State a larger population basis and are a rich fund of ethnical and moral reserves for the whole of the country.

In recent times, the idea of agrarian reform has been applied with emphasis in 14 States of Europe, and Czechoslovakia is among those which have most resolutely applied the two following principles: in the matter of property, the laws of evolution have been respected, that is to say that the ownership of the soil has received legal protection and steps are taken to ensure the fact that nothing compromises the productivity of agriculture and social peace. The execution of the reform has been entrusted to the State Land Office. At the head of this central autonomous body is a president and two vice-presidents, nominated by the President of the Republic on the proposal of the Government. The Office is directly under the authority of the Cabinet Council; it has its headquarters at Prague, but for the whole territory 11 district offices exist together with 50 Boards of Assessors. Parliament exercises control by means of an administrative committee of 12 members, elected by the National Assembly.

The Czechoslovak Agrarian Reform has for its aim not the total abolition of large agricultural properties, but only their reduction to a proportion consonant with the demands of technique and production. It concerns itself with the relations which have hitherto existed between the number and the extent of agricultural undertakings in the different degrees of size. In consequence, the Reform does not therefore touch the large properties which belong to the parishes, to the districts, to the provinces and to the State. Large estates are legally restricted to a minimum of 250 hectares which may, however, be expanded to a maximum of 500 hectares. Another exception may be made and a further area may be added to an estate when the Agrarian Reform Office considers it proved that such a measure ensure a more simple method of preserving natural beauties, or historic or artistic treasures. In this way there remained to the large estates, after the carrying out of the agrarian reform, a fitting area of soil which—in a great number of cases—was very considerable. It cannot be said that the agrarian reform has reduced to destitution that social class which in former days never represented more than 1.873 families.

The landed property belonging to them was declared to be "taken over" until the completion of the land reform, that is, the legal right of disposing of the property was restricted as regards sale, lease, parcelling, mortgage, etc. The superficial area thus affected amounted to more than four million hectares, or 28.6 per cent of the total area of the State. It is proper to point out that in this figure cultivated land (fields, meadows, gardens, vineyards and hop garden) did not represent more than 1,270,000 hectares. Up to the present, the agrarian reform has been almost exclusively carried out on that class of land.

From 1920 to 1922, when the agrarian legislation had not yet been thoroughly worked out, a number of preliminary measures were passed with the aim of allaying the feelings of the country population. In the first place it was made possible to buy up the leases on long credit. In this manner, more than 100,000 hectares of land passed at a purchase price of 180 million of crowns, into the possession of 128,000 small farmers. In the second place, 140,000 hectares of land were converted compulsorily into holdings on lease for 6 or more years for the benefit of close upon 260,000 families of small tenant farmers or of people who hitherto had been landless. Moreover, to liquidate the housing problem in country districts some 6,300 hectares of land were converted into building sites, small gardens, etc., more than 32,600 land folk being thus accommodated.

Strictly speaking, agrarian reform was no more than broached in 1921. Up to July 1, 1928 there had been withdrawn from its previous owners, and handed over to the new proprietors about 1,245,896 hectares, which included land already allocated under the preliminary measures. Of this area approximately 751,999 hectares was under cultivation. The land thus appropriated has been redistributed, to the extent of approximately 77 per cent, to small cultivators and to people up to then landless, to enable them eventually to round off their farms and become self-supporting. In this fashion a great number of country people were enabled to raise their standard of living and to increase their consumption, not to make mention of those who, by this means, were rendered permanently immune to the destructive influences of Bolshevist propaganda. Among the new owners of land are to be counted at least 53 per cent of farmers and peasants, 23 per cent of hitherto landless people (including erstwhile servants on the large estates) and 24 per cent of mixed professions (country artisans, industrial workers, lower grade State employees, and private persons). Bearing in mind the great density of population in the Czech Lands, it appears as only natural that the demand very largely exceeded the supply. From the total number of applicants between 30 and 40 per cent at least could not be satisfied.

Another typical aspect of the redistribution of the land is internal

"colonisation". Colonisation made it possible to found new settlements of peasants on areas of from 12 to 30 hectares. The construction of the new buildings necessary was undertaken with the aid of the technical advice and financial assistance of the State Land Office. Up to the present day, 2,131 families of colonists have been distributed among 120 parishes which were already in existence, and among 28 newly founded communes. For this purpose over 27,000 hectares of the above-mentioned area have been already allotted. Already more than 1,100 buildings have been erected for these settlers at a cost of 109 million of crowns. The colonisation movement is particularly intense in Slovakia.

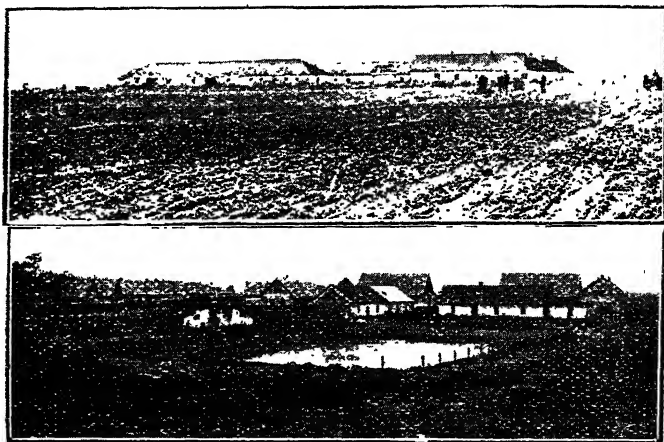
A third form of redistribution of land is the "remnants" of estates. The large estates were actually made up of farms which were distinct economic entities. So that the buildings and the installations on these farms should lose nothing of their value, 40 to 60 per cent of the land which originally depended on them was left as a rule as one whole. The remainder was parcelled out for the benefit of small agriculturalists of the district concerned. The nucleus which thus remained to the farm is the "remnant" of the estate. Properties of this class are reserved in the first place for individuals adversely affected by the agrarian reform—former farmers and employees on expropriated land. Up to the present, about 1,530 of such farms with an area of 134,700 hectares, or almost two thirds of the whole are in the hands of former owners and employees. In this manner, the continued working of the land by the pick of the agriculturalists has been assured.

For the execution of the redistribution of land in the communes where no estates were available for appropriation, the law provided for the exchange of expropriated land in return for non-expropriated ground. Moreover, it allowed of the formation, besides individual farms, or cooperative undertakings. Up to the present time there have thus been distributed among cooperatives about 13,132 hectares of land; in this figure is contained 4,260 hectares coming under the heading of "remnant" estates and apportioned to 34 cooperative enterprises exclusively composed of former employees of expropriated estates. These cooperatives have received from the State Land Office more than 36 million of crowns for the purposes of credit for appropriation and working, and they were brought under the control of the financial department of the Office.

At one time it was thought that the land reform would be catastrophic for the employees of large estates; events have not justified that apprehension. In conformation to the law, these employees were provided for by four methods: firstly, they were apportioned land; secondly, they were found other employment; thirdly, they were awarded compensation in kind and fourthly, they were pensioned for old age or disablement. The total of employees thus provided for up to the pre-

sent number 67,000, of which approximately one half have been dealt with in the first and second groups mentioned above. About 60,000 hectares of land has been redistributed among 17,131 families; altogether 100 millions of crowns, in round figures, have been devoted to assuring the livelihood of the personnel previously employed on the large estates.

The greater part of the new owners of land had need of credit. This was furnished for them by the State Land Office—either by direct

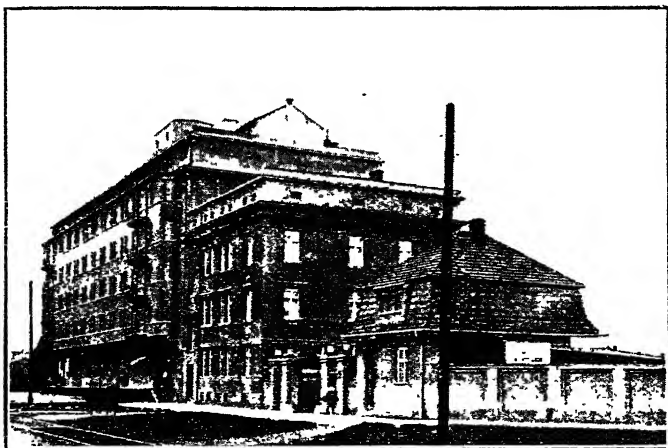


The Lonay Estate in Carpathian Ruthenia before and after the Land Reform.

loans or through Banks—and by the general Fund for the promotion of internal colonisation. The State Land Office also concluded an agreement with the provincial banking establishments with a view to providing private individuals with credit on mortgages, with or without State guarantee. Altogether, the amount of credit afforded, directly or indirectly, by the State Land Office (credits for acquisition, for working, for construction or investment) has already reached more than 500 million crowns.

The number of people for whom the agrarian reform has secured land is estimated at 500,000; this figure includes about 24 per cent of all the persons actively employed in agriculture in Czechoslovakia. In 1928 the reform so far as it is concerned with expropriated agricultural land, will be practically completed: during the course of the same year,

reform of expropriated forest land will be broached. Whereas in a number of European States a third or more of the forest is State property, only 15.8 per cent of all the forests in the Republic of Czechoslovakia is national property. So in this case it will be the State who will acquire the major portion of the forests; the remainder will be divided among communes, districts and other bodies of a public character. The law forbids the partition of forest areas. As elsewhere, in the anticipated forest reform, the exploitation of forest lands is regarded from the



*A Cooperative Warehouse
(Federation of Agricultural Cooperative Societies).*

angle of conservation, and exploitation of a lucrative but destructive character is scrupulously avoided.

With regard to the indemnification of dispossessed owners of large properties, the law stipulates that the indemnity should be based upon the average price which the land was worth during the years 1913 to 1915. The net revenue per hectare on the land register has been taken as a base for the estimate; this revenue is multiplied by a coefficient proportionate to the distance which lies between the land in question and the place where its produce is able to find a market. To prevent fluctuation in the price level, the law distinguishes four types of districts—sugar-beet, cereals and potatoes and fodder—these regions are determined by the number of juridical districts or, alternately by the number of communes; for each the details of the relevant factors are

tabulated. Analogous tables allow of the estimation of the comparative value of vineyards and forest lands. If it is a question of land remarkable for its quality, 5 to 15 per cent is added to the basic price to which reference has been made above; at the same time, it is the custom to take into consideration the value of fruit trees, the capital outlay effected on estates since 1914, the cost of manuring, and outlays of all kinds in connection with the new harvest. In the large majority of cases, the proprietor and the Land Office act in concert to fix the amount of the indemnity. If they are unable to come to an agreement, the Office makes its decision and fixes a price: from that decision appeal can be made to the Provincial Tribunal and from thence to the Supreme Provincial Tribunal. From the decision given in the second instance, there remains yet one more appeal: that to the Supreme Court of Justice. The agrarian reform does not affect the live stock and inventory of the large estates. The indemnity allowed for expropriated property is proportioned by the tribunal in whose registers the estate is inscribed. Account is taken of the taxes and contributions for which the estate is responsible, principally the capital levy, mortgages, etc.; half the amount of the indemnity fixed is paid down; the remainder is inscribed in the Indemnity Register and carries interest at the rate of 4 per cent, subject to a minimum tax of $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The Indemnity Registers are held at present by the Indemnity Bank, an office which, by a Government decree, has been attached to the Postal Cheque Bureau.

The new owners are held responsible for the personal management of their land and this must be conducted in a rational manner; their rights of ownership are limited, at least for the time being, by a number of restrictions; being forbidden to alienate, to parcel or to mortgage the land which has been ceded to them, without first obtaining the authorisation of the State Land Office. This restriction tends to stabilise the new conditions of ownership and to prevent all uncertain speculation on the redistributed land. This law has, as been indicated above, a purely temporary character.

The fears of certain adversaries of Agrarian Reform have not been realised. Agricultural industry flourishes (sugar manufactory, distilling, brewing and malting) and has scarcely been affected by the land reform (that is, by the change of ownership). On the contrary, the typical crop of the big estates—that of sugar-beet—every year shows an increase of area and in the quantity of sugar manufactured. While the area under sugar-beet was 192,864 hectares during 1920-21, it had increased to 311,674 hectares in 1925-26: whereas the factories handled 42,003,409 quintals of sugar-beet in 1920-21, they handled 88,264,132 quintals in 1925-26; the quantity of raw sugar manufactured during the course of these two years was 7,172,395 quintals and 15,100,000 quintals respectively. The principal producers of sugar-beet are, of

course, not the same as heretofore. Formerly the undertakings of more than 100 hectares produced almost 40 per cent of the total sugar produced, to-day it is the undertakings of 5 to 20 hectares which raise the most—about 46 per cent. The level of stock breeding has similarly been raised both with regard to the number and to the quality of the breed. In milk production the country is self-sufficing. Another sign of improvement lies in the fact that the importation of live stock is rapidly declining. The agrarian reform has, then, been fully realised without hindering normal development. The fact contains nothing surprising for, on the one hand the reform was proceeded with by stages, following a scheme which had been thoroughly worked out and deliberated; on the other hand its execution had been favoured by the high professional level of the Czechoslovak agriculturists, with whom love for the land and a capacity for hard work go hand in hand with a very broad comprehension of the development of technique, an appreciation of the benefits of agricultural education and the value of cooperation, the advantages of which lie in the employment of electricity, etc.

Agrarian reform is a revolutionary measure in the sense that it is a revolt of the nation against the former Monarchy. It is, at the same time, a conservative measure from the point of view that it has enormously consolidated the principle of private ownership. Where, previously there were a few hundreds of large landowners, the reform has allied most firmly to the soil—and that, for the first time—half a million of families of proprietors of the fields which they cultivate. The two-fold scourge of depopulation and pauperism which raged in the country districts was henceforth exorcized; the social tension which existed between the people and the large landowners is to-day, if not altogether gone, at least sensibly diminished. It is apparent that this aspect of agrarian reform as a social pacification has not been fully estimated at its true worth, up to the present. For President Masaryk, on the contrary, agrarian reform has been the crowning glory of the revolutionary work accomplished in October, 1918. It has, according to him, contributed to the consolidation of the Republic of Czechoslovakia, and by that means it has rendered an immense service to the whole of Central Europe. It is in this spirit that it is intended to be concluded.

SOCIAL POLICY

I.

Social policy, which is an organized activity leading to the abolishing or at least to the lessening of the errors of the organization of society, has been divided from the outset in the Czechoslovak Republic into three groups:

1. The first and the most urgent activity was that aiming at an alleviation of the consequences of the War. Until the Republic could open normal commercial connections with foreign countries, it was necessary for some time after the War that the Government should control the food supply and secure the necessary minimum of clothing and footwear.

The difficulties of this period were overcome relatively early. But even up to the present time not all the consequences of the War have disappeared. There remained in particular invalid soldiers, War widows and orphans, and dependent relatives. There were registered originally over 600,000 of these unhappy victims of the War, though the whole number was certainly larger. The number however is gradually decreasing. The invalids are dying off, the widows are marrying again, the children are growing up, so that there is now about half a million of War victims, for which the Republic has to care.

This duty which originally was very extensive, decreased in time either naturally (treatment of invalids), or on the basis of experience acquired, so that today one can say that it is restricted to monetary support. The claim for invalid compensation begins when the capacity for working is decreased at least by 20%. Invalidity of 85% warrants a claim for the full compensation to the amount of Kč. 2,400 yearly. If there is a smaller loss of working capacity, the claim for compensation is proportionally smaller. An invalid has further a claim to an increase of 10% on the basic compensation for each dependent child up to 18 years.

The compensation for a widow is Kč 600.— if her capacity for work is decreased by 30%. The compensation for a widow whose working capacity is decreased at least by 50%, or who has to care for two dependent children is Kč 900.—. A widow who is totally incapable of working or who is over 55 years old, has a claim for a further bonus of Kč 200.— yearly. A claim for orphan compensation is possessed by a dependent orphan up to 18 years of age, or in exceptional cases even longer. The orphan compensation amounts to Kč 400.— for each child yearly. The compensation for a widow, and the orphan compensation together, may not exceed the amount of Kč 2,400.— yearly.

If this amount is not exhausted, the rest up to the amount of Kč. 400.— yearly can be claimed by the parents, or by other ascendants, in so far as they are incapable of working and if the dead person contributed substantially to their maintenance. If even then the amount is not exhausted, the Ministry of Social Welfare can allot from the remaining amount a compensation up to the amount of Kč 400.— to the deceased's brothers and sisters who are incapable of working, if they can prove that the dead person provided exclusively for their maintenance.

As long as the abnormal high cost of living prevails a bonus of 50% to the above-mentioned compensations is allowed.

The sum total of these compensations amounts at the present time to almost Kč 500,000.000 yearly.

Not so simple has been the activity of the Government with regard to the housing problem. During the War no houses were constructed because there was nobody to build for. The men went to War, the women with their children moved to the parents, new families were not established, old families did not increase. The sudden peace changed everything at once, the claims on the housing market increased suddenly, and they could not be satisfied for the reason that the costs of building construction increased very rapidly so that they were entirely out of proportion to the income of the large masses of the population. The Government therefore had to step in. It had to protect the tenants against increase of rent and it had to aid building activity.

The protection of tenants legislation prevents even at the present time the giving of arbitrary notice to a tenant and it restricts increase of rent. Notice can be given only for very important reasons and with the consent of the Court only. Rent has been gradually increased partly with the permission of law, partly by private agreement, so that in the old houses it is increased at present to about twice or three times the pre-War rent.

The law for the protection of tenants expired on the 31st of March 1928. The housing situation however did not permit of it being allowed to expire. As was expected, the measure was extended with several unimportant modifications.

The Government has supported Building activity mainly in assisting to obtain mortgage credits, in accepting the guaranty for the contractor's payment of due interest and amortization on such a mortgage the interest and amortization on which could not be paid, out of rental of the house constructed at a disproportionately high cost. The quota of this guaranty varied according to the costs of building which were generally in the same proportion as the rate of the Czechoslovak crown with reference to the gold standard. After the stabilization of the Czechoslovak exchange and after prices became

balanced with the present exchange value of the currency, the Government found it no longer necessary to support building activities with funds, even in the form of providing a mere guaranty. The existing legislation grants therefore merely reductions of taxes and of surtaxes for the period of 25 years, or of 35 years if the building has only small apartments. The law will expire this year but it will be probably renewed.

About 60,000 dwellings have been constructed with the direct help of the Government. The State has guaranteed payment of interest and amortization of loans amounting to 3,000,000,000 Kč. and the annual outlay in interest and of amortization exceeds 200,000,000 Kč. It will be about 40 years before all the obligations of the State under this heading are liquidated.

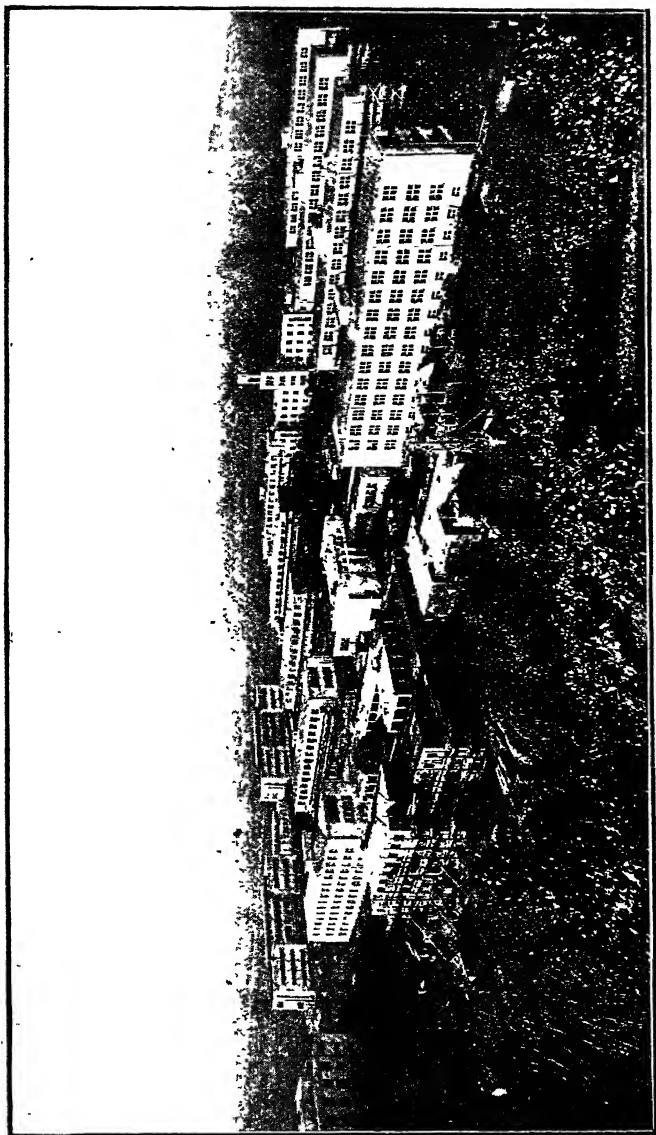
2. The care of the Government for the working classes must be permanent, though it will in general be restricted to legislative effort.

As far as legislation for the protection of workers is concerned, the Republic has endeavoured in general to protect the health of workers by fixing working hours, by prohibiting the employment of children up to 14 years, by prohibiting night work, by regulating the work of domestic workers, mainly, however, by introducing an eight hours day and unconditional ratification of the Washington convention, and by securing holidays for such workmen as have been employed in the same undertaking at least for one year.

Observance of the protective laws is secured partly by an industrial control, which applies at the present time only to industry, trade and commerce but which, however, will be probably extended to all kinds of work, partly through factory councils elected by a direct and secret ballot on the basis of proportional representation for one year in undertakings which employ at least 30 workmen and which have existed at least six months after starting production.

The law imposes upon the factory councils the duty of protecting and stimulating the economic, social and cultural interests of the employees. They have two kinds of duties. On the one hand they have to take care that the employer observes the law and contracts for the protection of workmen, on the other hand, they have to secure to the workers a certain influence in the management of the undertaking. With reference to the first point their activity demonstrates itself in intervention on the discharge of workmen who have been employed in the undertaking continually for 3 years. If the factory council finds that there is no reason for the discharge of such a workman, it will place the case together with its opinion before the arbitration commission, with which the final decision lies.

The factory council has the right to make proposals for the improvement of the management, especially for the improvement of the technical



The Social Institute of the City of Prague at Krč. (Architect: M. Kosák.)

equipment and for the improvement of working methods, etc. The management of the undertaking is therefore obliged to report at least once in every three months to a meeting of the factory council on the commercial and administrative situation of the undertaking, on its capacity, output, and its program for the future.

In the undertakings of joint-stock companies the factory council has the right to send to the meeting of the board of directors and to the annual general meeting from two to four delegates, who must be at least 30 years old and who have been for at least for three years employed in the undertaking. The delegates of the factory councils have no right to vote.

The members of the factory councils have a certain immunity in that they can be discharged only with the approval of the arbitration commission. This commission is composed of six members. Its chairman is a judge or other public official. One of the assessors has also to be a public official. The rest of the assessors are composed of 2 representatives of the employers and of 2 representatives of the employees.

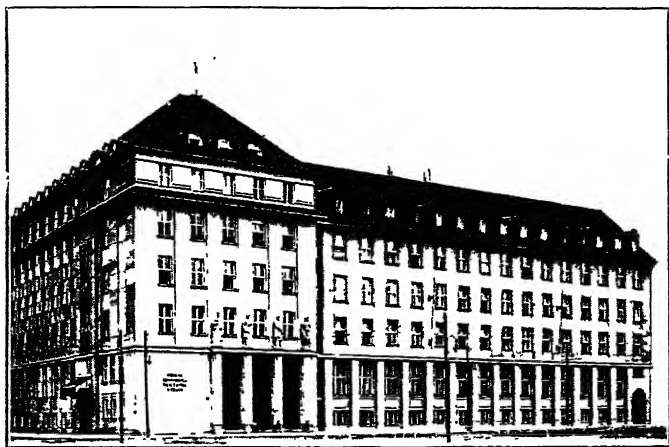
Somewhat more extensive are the powers of the factory (workers') councils in mining, to which are allotted 10% of the net profit of the respective undertaking for the benefit of the social welfare of the miners.

The factory committees have not yet been long enough in operation to enable a judgment to be given on the importance of this institution. The extent and intensity of their activities will of course depend on the power of the working classes at a given period and on the qualities of the members of the councils themselves. The beginning was not very auspicious because the workers' organizations were at that time affected by Communist influence. Only recently, since the reorganization of the workers' organizations the most experienced workmen have been sent as delegates to the factory councils. So that for the future it may be expected that the law regarding factory councils will fulfil the objects for which it was passed.

With regard to the second part of legislation for workers, i. e. workers' insurance, there has been introduced in Czechoslovakia accident sickness, invalidity and old age insurance.

Accident insurance was originally intended to be the substitute for compulsory guarantee and it applies therefore to such undertakings only in which there is considerable danger of accidents. The employees of such an undertaking are entitled in case of accident in the undertaking to a compensation equal to $\frac{2}{3}$ of their earnings in the last year supposing that the injured person is totally disabled for work. If the accident causes a lesser degree of incapacity for work, the compensation is proportionally less. If the accident resulted in the death of the employee, the widow is entitled to a compensation of 20% of his wages,

and his children, until they have completed their 15th year to a compensation of 15% ; or if the second parent is dead, 20%. The compensation of the widow and of the children must not exceed $\frac{2}{3}$ of the wages. In case this quota of the earnings is not exhausted by the compensation, 20% of it will go to the ascendants of the insured deceased, to his grand children and orphans up to their 15th year in case they were mainly dependent upon his support. The accident insurance premium is paid solely by the employer.



*Head Office of the Health Insurance District Organization at Prague
(Architects: MM. Hübschman and Roit).*

For a long time negotiations have been in progress for a new adjustment of accident insurance, partly for the reason that it is necessary to unify the various legal regulations in the historic provinces and in Slovakia, and partly because it is necessary to extend accident insurance itself. The necessity for a new arrangement has become acute now since disability insurance has been effectuated, the two kinds of insurance overlapping each other in certain points.

Every wage-earner in the Republic is insured against sickness. The insurance is provided by various insurance institutions. These institutions provide the insured gratis with medical help, and with medicines, and they pay him a sickness benefit amounting to $\frac{2}{3}$ of his wages. Expectant mothers receive sick pay for six weeks before the birth of the child and six weeks after, if they do not work

for wages during this period. The pay amounts to one half of the general sickness benefit, and, besides that, a contribution for the nursing of the child for the period of 12 weeks in case the mother nurses the child herself. In case of the death of the insured person or of a member of his family the insurance institution pays the funeral expenses.

About 3,000,000 of persons are insured against sickness. One half the insurance premium is paid by the employer and one-half by the employee.

Persons employed in the public services, who are entitled to receive their salary during illness, have their own sickness insurance scheme which provides them with gratis medical attention.

Miners and private employees (clerks, etc.) were insured against disability and against old age even under the old Austrian régime. Both kinds of insurance have been supplemented in the Republic by the general insurance of workers so that it is possible to say that this insurance covers all private wage-earners.

The insured are classified according to their earnings into several wage classes. For each of these classes there is fixed a special premium, which is paid—with few exceptions—half by the employer and half by the employee. An employee is regarded as an invalid when he cannot earn more than one third of his normal wages. The invalidity pension in the miners—and private employees—insurance is paid wholly by the insurance institution. To the compensation paid by the insurance institution in the rest of the workers' insurance system the State contributes 500 Kč. per annum. The amount of the compensation depends upon the amount of the premium paid for the whole time.

On the completion of 65 years, the insured is entitled to an old-age pension which is equal to the disability pension. In the case of miners the completion of 55 years is sufficient.

The widow is entitled to one half of the disability pension if she herself is disabled. The insurance system of the miners and of private employees does not contain this restriction. The orphan is entitled to the orphan pension up to his 17th year—in the private employees insurance system up to his 18th year, and under certain circumstances even up to a higher age—amounting to $\frac{1}{2}$ of the disability pension.

Besides this, children get subsidies for education equal, in the case of worker's insurance, to $\frac{1}{10}$ and in the private employees system to $\frac{1}{6}$ of the pension.

For each of these systems of insurance a special insurance institution has been provided. The insurance of miners is based upon the distribution system, the rest of the insurances upon the system of the reimbursement of capital.

Of late steps have been essayed towards a change in these insurance laws. In the private employees system an increase of the compensation

is intended, the miners insurance system is to be attached to the workmen insurance system, and the payments are to be fixed in conformity therewith, while from the workers' insurance system certain groups, especially domestic workers and some categories of farm workers are to be excluded.

Small traders and farmers have agitated to come within disability and old age insurance schemes. This wish has been met by the passing of a measure. As these classes, however, are not so well prepared for the idea of insurance as the workers, it is necessary to prepare them for it. This is the reason why the date has not yet been fixed when the insurance scheme will come into operation, and why the Government has been given the power to fix the date by a decree. This decree has not yet, however, been issued.

3. Finally there may be mentioned the provision made for persons, who are not able to provide for their own livelihood. These are mainly children, aged persons, and persons with physical or mental defects. The present legislation leaves the care of those persons to the local authorities of their place of domicile. But these authorities are not in a position to fulfil this duty adequately. The Provincial authorities and the State have consequently to assist.

A Bill is to be passed very shortly for the benefit of persons over 65 years of age, which will impose upon the State the duty of providing them with a certain measure of support. Asylums are maintained by the Provinces for persons with certain defects, and these institutions are also supported partly by private charity. Care for children is provided under the supervision and with support of the Government by the district voluntary organizations, which have in time acquired a semi-official character.

We are conscious of the fact that those activities, as well the whole social policy is, in general, a defensive one, and that the best social policy consists in activities directed towards peace and towards the economic prosperity of the country.

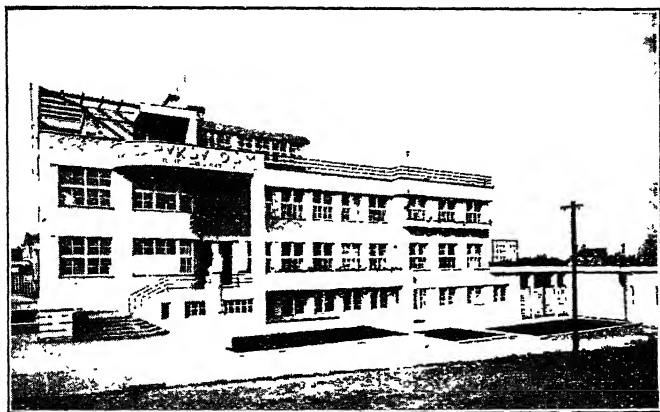
THE TRADE UNION MOVEMENT

By its origin and evolution the Trades Union movement in Czechoslovakia is in close relation with the development of the economic and industrial life of the Czech lands as well as with the efforts of the State in its political life in general, and of the Labour and Socialist movement in particular. The Trades Unions which, by reason of their principles, are attached to one or the other of the different Socialist parties of the country are chronologically the oldest established; they have the advantage of numbers, and from the point of view of organisation, are the best equipped. Trades Unions of a non-Socialist tendency are, for the most part, of a more recent foundation; moreover, their field of action is relatively more restricted, entailing a more limited activity. The organisations grouped according to the different categories of officials and employés are very numerous. These, also, are almost all of a recent date, but despite numerous efforts, no method of unifying them has yet been found to cement them in one whole, so that they present, in effect, a great chaos of associations and federations, distributed sometimes according to political tendency and sometimes according to the category of employees forming them. As the Trades Unions in Czechoslovakia for the most part are also distributed according to nationality, it can be seen that the Trades Union movement, in this country, offers an extremely varied picture. The statistics drawn up in 1927 indicate 319 Trades organisations grouped in 13 "centres" (of these 238 are Czechoslovak, 66 German and 15 Communist), and, in addition, 159 organisations which do not belong to any "centre" (of which 113 are Czechoslovak, and 46 are German). On the date mentioned above these organisations represented a total of 1,708,589 members.

1. TRADES UNION OF A SOCIALIST CHARACTER

1. The oldest and the most powerful of the Unions grouped within the Labour Federation are those of a Social-Democratic tendency. The origin of these organisations dates back to the years 1860 and 1870. On the basis of two new laws, the one governing associations and meetings (1867) and the new coalition law of 1870, the first workers' mutual associations were founded for insurance and benefit purposes, and these were later transformed, under the ideas of the Social-Democrats, into Trades Unions. The Vienna Congress of 1893 succeeded in fusing all the Trades Unions of pre-War Austria. Four years later, the Czech organisations created an independent "centre", the Labour Federation. This Federation, before the War, represented the oldest and the strongest of the Trades Unions in the Czech lands. Thus in 1913 it already comprised 104,574 members. The German workers as well as

a small number of Czech members of the old Austrian Federations remained in those whose "centre" was in Vienna. The total number of workmen adhering to these Federations was, in 1913, 134,118 for the Czech lands. After the change in the regime of 1918, the Social-Democrat Trades Unions made a great advance, but there ensued, in 1920, 1921 and the subsequent years, a crisis which affected the Social Democrat Party and planted a schism in its breast. Those of its members who had a leaning towards Communism left the Social-Democrat groups and found-



*Masaryk Social Welfare Home at Mladá Boleslav.
(Architect: M. Kroha.)*

ed their own organisations, of which was born the International Federation of all Trades Unions. This secession weakened the Federation of Labour, but the loss suffered was made good in 1927, when, after several years of negotiations, it became possible to incorporate the German Trades Unions of a Social Democrat orientation. Compelled, by the creation of an independent Czechoslovak State, to detach themselves from Vienna and their former "centres", these organisations had formed at Liberec, after the War, an independent "centre" the Deutscher Gewerkschaftsbund and had refused to apply the principle which hitherto they had claimed: a single "centre" in each State. Finally they adjusted themselves to the new circumstances and allied themselves to the Federation of Labour, at the same time retaining a large measure of autonomy. Including this development of the situation,

the following represents the strength of the Social Democrat Trades Unions on the 1st of January, 1927:

Federation of Labour:	48 Czechoslovak Federations	348,069 members
	23 German Federations . .	202,102 ,,
<hr/>		
Total . . .	71 Federations	550,271 members

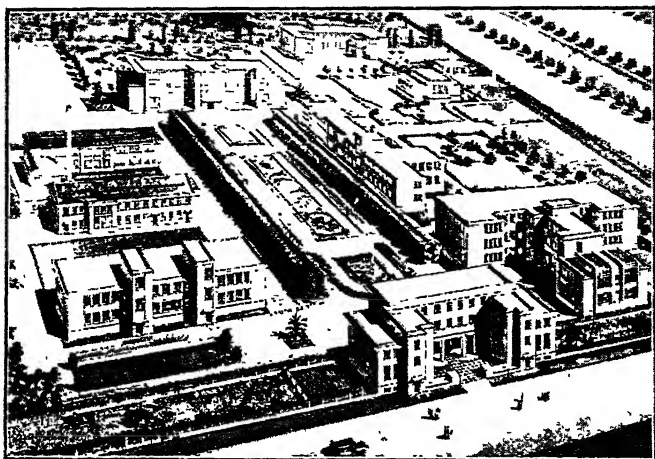
In the Communist International Federation were grouped 18 organisations called industrial sections and numbering 184,025 members.

The Federation of Labour and the associations grouped with it issues for its members a review, *The Labour Federation*, and 68 periodicals, of which 46 are Czech, 14 German, 8 Slovak, 4 Magyar and 2 Polish. The German Unions alone issue 20 newspapers. The Czech Unions incorporated in the Federation paid out to their members in 1926 in benefits of all classes the sum of about 34 millions of Czech crowns; the German associations dispensed 32 millions of Czech crowns. The funds of the Czech associations in the same year totalled 48 million crowns; that of the German associations totalled 21 millions. The syndicates attached to the Federation of Labour are part of the international organisation known as the Amsterdam International.

2. A second group of Socialist Trades Unions is represented by the organisations composing the Czech Workers' Union (*Česká obec dělnická*) which works in the same spirit as the National Socialist Party of Czechoslovakia. These organisations, also, were born of the pre-War political movement. In 1897, in addition to the Social-Democratic party another workers' party constituted itself: the National Socialist party. This party was opposed to the international spirit of the Social Democrat Unions who, in turn, were against the national idea, and it was in view of this that, beginning in 1897 they founded the Trades Unions attached to the above-mentioned "centre". In 1913, these organisations numbered 77,032 adherents. The great impetus of the post-War period gave so great a stimulus to the Czech Workers' Union that, at the beginning of 1927 it contained 57 Federations with 307,333 members. These organisations published 55 trade periodicals; their funds, at the end of 1926, totalled more than 23 million Czech crowns. The great differences which had been observable before the War between the Trades Unions of a Social Democrat tendency and those of a National Socialist orientation were considerably lightened when Czechoslovakia became independent and gave ample proof that the organisations and sections of the Social Democrats, in the domain of practical politics, possessed a lively comprehension of the needs of the nation, while, on the other hand, the organisations and sections of the National Socialists showed a sense of the Socialist ideals of the working class. Thus practical collaboration between the organisations belonging to these two tendencies and between the "centres" to which they belonged was rendered possible.

2. TRADES UNION OF A NON-SOCIALIST CHARACTER

Within the frame-work of the Conservative Catholic political movement, the Christian Social Trades organisations were constituted before the War, in the year 1902. With regard to their importance and numerical strength they rank considerably below the Socialist Trades Unions. On the eve of the War the number of their members was estimated at 25,000. These organisations developed considerably, when Czechoslovakia attained



District Hospital at Hradec Králové.

independence. In effect, their development has kept pace with that of the Popular party. The "centre" of these organisations is the National Labour Commission for Christian Socialist Workers, which claims a total of 19 Federations comprising 113,869 members. The Christian Socialist Trades Unions publish in all 8 periodicals. These do not possess the combative character of the organisations of which mention has been made above; they represent none the less the tendency to the Left in the Catholic movement, for they display a comprehension of the social progress and the reforms which interest the labour world. In Slovakia the organisation of the Christian Socialist workers enjoys autonomy. It forms, with some organisations of State employees a group known as The Federation of Slovak Trades Unions and numbers, altogether, 46,363 members. The

German Christian Social Workers have also their autonomous organisations and an independent "centre", the Verband der Christlichen Gewerkschaften für das Gebiet des Čechoslovakischen Staates (The Trades Federations of Christian Workers for the territory of the Czechoslovak State) of which the headquarters are at Svitavy. This "centre" contains 8 organisations with 20,185 members.

The groups of the National Federation of Trades Unions of workers and employées of all categories did not come into existence until after the War. They were founded at the beginning of 1921, under the auspices of the National Democratic Party. In distinction to the Socialist Trades Unions, these organisations do not admit class warfare and have a strongly marked national character. The Federation publishes its own journal and numbered, at the end of 1926, a little more than 25,000 members. There is, in the German camp, an organisation which offers a certain analogy to this Czech organisation; it is the Reichsvereinigung der deutschen Gewerkschaften (National Union of German Trades Unions) which contains slightly more than 50,000 members in 18 Federations and issues 18 periodicals. All these German organisations practice a policy of a German-National tendency and they group themselves principally with the German National Socialist Party.

III. The idea of association by profession or trade for the purpose of ensuring a better defence of material and moral interests has been adopted from labour by intellectual workers of all types. A certain proportion of these are organised in the frame-work of the sections of the political parties, but the greater part are organised in non-political or politically neutral organisations of professional or other interests. Groups of this nature already existed before the overthrow of 1918 but, on the restoration of the Czechoslovak State, the general impetus effected also the ideal of professional co-operation. A confused crowd of groups, organisations and federations sprang into existence at that time which, on account of their numerical weakness, led to the uniting and constituting of more extensive unions and federations. The most powerful of these federations is the Czechoslovak Union of Officials and Employées which incorporates 55 organisations totalling 86,913 members. Among these organisations of officials and employées the most important is the Czechoslovak Union of Teachers which has 23,375 members. This is followed in importance by the General Federation of Clerks, with 21,394 adherents. This has existed in its present form since 1922. Mention must also be made of the Federation of Former High School Pupils to which 29 organisations belong, embodying groups of different officials and superior employées who have graduated at the High Schools, and the Republican "Centre" of Employées, which is composed

of four organisations making up a total of 50,185 members (agricultural and forestry employées, officials, teachers and employées belonging to the Republican party, etc.), who politically, follow the directions of the Republican (Agrarian) Party.

Moreover, there exist in Czechoslovakia 113 professional organisations which do not belong to any "centre" and which number 169,772 members. The greater part of these organisations are of slight importance and in general have for their purpose mutual benefit or education. Nevertheless some of these comprise a sufficient number of adherents to make them noteworthy. The organisations of the members of the public services, for instance, the Federation of Czechoslovak Officers (15,322 members) the Federation of Czechoslovak Non-commissioned Officers, the Federation of Public Officials and teachers who have completed a secondary school course, etc.

Among the German organisations of employées the most remarkable is the Verband der Staatsangestellten-Vereinigungen, (the Federation of the Associations of Public Employées) which was founded as a non-political organisation and which comprises 17 organisations totalling 8,058 members. Moreover, there exist 56 different German organisations of a professional character; together their membership totals 42,737.

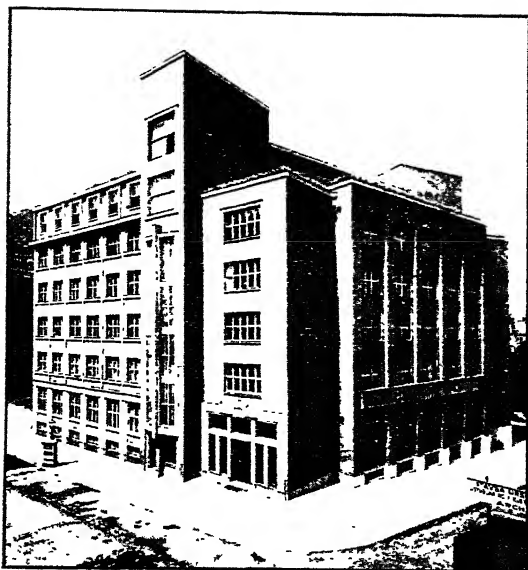
As can be seen from this general review, the trade union idea has put out powerful roots in Czechoslovakia, and it comprises all workers of whatever branch of service, or social or professional class. The Workers organisations in Czechoslovakia are the most complete and the most perfect incarnations of this idea. Their influence on the standard of the Czechoslovak working class and upon the economic, intellectual and moral situation has been, and still is, very profound.

III.

CULTURAL LIFE

AND

EDUCATION



*Agricultural Educational Institute at Prague.
(Architect: M. Gočár.)*

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION AND EDUCATION OF THE PEOPLE

A. Public Instruction

The development of public instruction on the territory of the present Czechoslovak Republic began as early as the Middle Ages. Prague has been, since the year 1348, the seat of a University, which was the first university north of the Alps and east of France. Out of the Czech nation sprang the great educational reformer, John Amos Comenius. No wonder that in the heart of Europe school education was fast penetrating among all classes of people. General compulsory education was introduced by Austria in the year 1869 and Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia had in the old monarchy the lowest number of illiterates (scarcely 3%).

On the territory in which, in a colorful intermingling several nations used to live together, teaching through the medium of Latin was re-

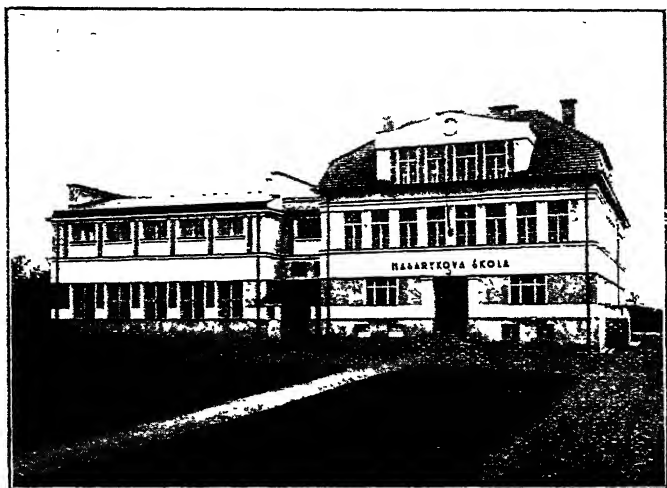
placed by the end of the 18th century by the German language, and in the Hungarian section by the Magyar language. It was only in the latter part of the 18th century that the principle of Comenius was realized, that each child should be educated in its mother tongue. It is a peculiarity of Czechoslovakia that it divides its schools according to the language through the medium of which instruction is given: Throughout the country there exist all kinds of Czechoslovak and German schools, besides Ruthenian, Hungarian, Polish, Jewish and Rumanian schools.

After its establishment, the first task of the Czechoslovak Republic was to improve the educational conditions in both its new territories, Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia, because there was still a great number of illiterates and the schools of the former régime were with few exceptions, Hungarian. For the whole Czechoslovak territory there was passed in the year 1922 an eight-year compulsory school attendance law which, in Slovakia and in Carpathian Ruthenia was up to that time only for six years. Besides that it was declared obligatory for boys and girls over 14 years who do not receive education in other schools to attend continuation schools for at least two years. This principle is to be applied gradually in towns as well as in the country. The public instruction in both parts of the new State has been unified by law as far as possible. Thus its standard has been raised very rapidly and its administration has become more simplified, especially after the Ministry of Education placed under its supervision every kind of schools with the exception of agricultural and military schools.

For scattered citizens speaking another language the institution of the so-called minority schools has been established. They are to be established and maintained by the government in all such places where the children of a certain national minority do not possess any public schools of their mother tongue. Primary minority schools may be established if at least 40 such children are registered and, for the establishment of grammar (central) schools the presence of at least 400 pupils of that tongue is necessary. It is interesting to note that the greatest number of schools of that kind is required by Czech children, because their parents live as workmen scattered among the German population. At the present time there exist, as State minority schools, 983 primary schools and 157 grammar schools.

The national schools are otherwise kept up by individual provinces—which with governmental support pay the teachers' salaries—while the communities meet the material necessities and furnish and maintain the school buildings. Only in Slovakia are the national schools kept up by the government, which supports also the primary church schools. There are in Czechoslovakia relatively few private schools, belonging to convents, etc.

For a primary school there are prescribed eight school years, but there exist also schools having fewer grades, namely, five, three, and one grade. In the cities there are primary five-grade schools, and the pupils afterwards attend a three-grade grammar school where a system of specialist teachers exists. The three-grade grammar school in cities is compulsory for all those pupils who did not enter other schools. Often an optional fourth grade is attached which enlarges the knowledge of pupils for practical life. The grammar schools are divided according to



A Village Elementary School. (Semčice, Bohemia.)

the sex of the pupils into boys' schools and girls' schools and in places where the number of boys or girls is not sufficient for the dividing of the school, the so-called mixed schools are established.

It is interesting that the law allows men-teachers as well as women-teachers to teach boys as well as girls in the primary schools. One-half of all the positions in a school must be filled by men-teachers, the other half by women-teachers.

Several very important new methods in teaching have been introduced since the War. In all grades of primary and of advanced schools educational manual-training as well as civics and education is generally taught. At any school the parents can, at the beginning of the school year, file the request that their children be not taught religion. This

provision is especially for the benefit of the numerous children not attached to any religious body or, who are members of churches which are not recognized by the government. In the fourth grade of the grammar schools the girls are taught cooking and domestic science.

The following statistical figures for the end of 1926 will show what a variety has developed as far as the language in which teaching is done is concerned:

<i>Kind of schools</i>	<i>Number</i>	
	<i>of schools</i>	<i>of pupils</i>
Czechoslovak primary	9,419	922,901
Czechoslovak grammar	1,256	233,187
Ruthenian primary	484	62,854
Ruthenian grammar	484	2,033
German primary	3,287	295,551
German grammar	433	66,695
Hungarian primary	794	91,367
Hungarian grammar	17	2,235
Polish primary	87	10,407
Polish grammar	8	1,416
Rumanian primary	2	296
Hebrew primary	9	613
Combined primary	76	19,834
Total primary schools	14,158	1,403,823
Total grammar schools	1,736	310,010

Of the 33,560 teachers in the primary schools 36%, and of the 9,327 teachers in the advanced schools 31% were women.

In like manner as the primary and grammar schools also the kindergarten have been divided according to language. There are altogether 1584 with 99,134 children and 2861 nurses and they are maintained by communities, societies and other corporations.

The number of special schools for the feeble-minded and neglected children is increasing continuously. In the year 1925 they were attached to different institutions in the following numbers: For deaf and dumb, 19, for blind, 15, for cripples and scrofulous, 12, for morally deficient, 23, for mentally deficient, 19, besides which there were 102 part-time classes in the cities. There are altogether 6500 pupils of this sort.

School hygiene is being organized in the national schools. In the city schools doctors are appointed (in the City of Prague there are 86, besides 4 dental clinics and several ambulatoria for the treating of tuberculosis). Some cities erect open air schools for tubercular children and introduce a curative gymnastic. The City of Prague has its own pedological institute with 4 sections: Pedagogical, somatological, pedopsychological, and pedopathological. The budget of the City of

Prague for the care of children amounted in the year 1927, to Kč 20.000.000.—.

Secondary schools have in Czechoslovakia eight grades. "Reálky" (modern, or realistic schools) which have at the present time seven grades are to be extended also to eight grades. The secondary schools are attended by pupils over ten years of age, after they have finished the fourth or fifth grade of a primary school, and have taken an entrance examination. There are the following secondary schools (Gymnasia): 1. Classical gymnasia with Latin beginning in the first grade and with Greek beginning in the fifth grade. 2. Realistic gymnasia with curriculum of classical gymnasia in the four lower grades and with French or English beginning in the fifth grade. 3. Reformed realistic gymnasia with curriculum of the realistic schools in the four lower grades, with Latin beginning in the fifth grade and with another modern language (English, Italian or a Slavonic language) beginning in the seventh grade. The realistic schools teach technical science and the modern languages, French or English are taught in them commencing in the second grade.

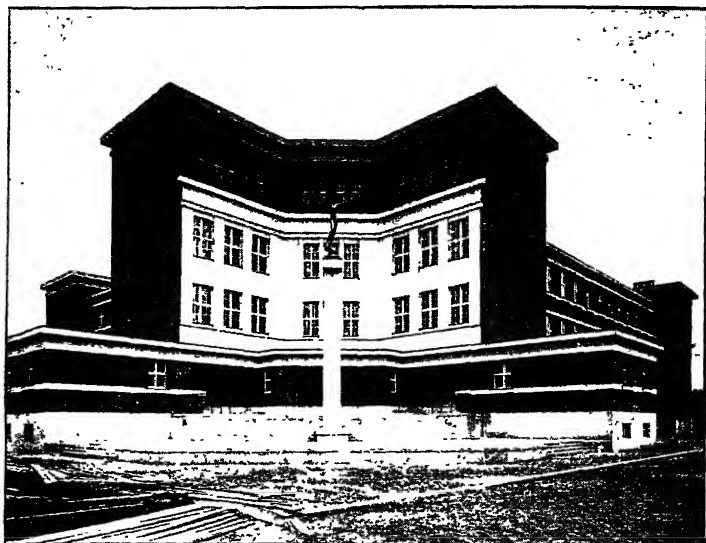
In the secondary schools with Czechoslovak tongue as medium of instructions the teaching of German also, beginning in the first grade, is compulsory; in the schools with another tongue the teaching of the Czechoslovak language is also compulsory. The number of compulsory classes in individual grades is 30-34 hours weekly. Religion is taught compulsorily in the five lowest grades, in Slovakia and in Carpathian Ruthenia in all grades. Elective subjects are handicrafts, shorthand, singing and music, modern languages, chemistry and physical exercises, etc.

For girls there existed up to the end of the War a special type of secondary school having six grades, the so-called lyceum, which, however, has been replaced by girls' reformed realistic gymnasia, realistic gymnasia, or by realistic schools. The girls are now allowed to study also in boys' secondary schools and they utilize this opportunity quite extensively: In the school year 1927/28 in addition to 7671 girls attending 30 girls' secondary schools, 15,222 girls also attended boys' secondary schools. The girls constitute one-fourth of the total enrolment of all the pupils in secondary schools. Also in other schools, especially in professional schools, there is a large percentage of girls.

A great number of pupils enter professional schools, or normal schools after having finished the fourth grade of a secondary school. The graduates from secondary schools finish their studies by a final examination in writing as well as verbal, which entitles them to study in a University: regularly the final examination in a gymnasium is the condition for studies in a University, the final examination in a realistic or reformed realistic gymnasium for studies either in a University or

in a Polytechnical school, but by supplementary examinations access to almost all University studies is possible. The women are allowed to study all kinds of branches in Universities with the exception of Roman Catholic theology.

The interest in studies at secondary schools is very intensive in Czechoslovakia. For every 125 inhabitants there is one pupil of a secondary school. The secondary schools are accessible to the widest circles



Gymnasium at Hradec Králové. (Architect: M. Gočár.)

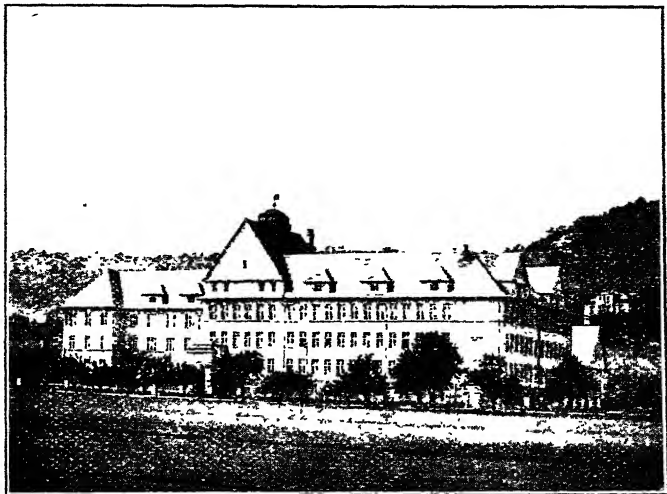
of the population, since they do not require any special preparatory schools and they are maintained in general by the government, which grants free tuition in more than half of them. According to the investigation made in 1922 the pupils attending secondary schools came from the following classes: 15.8% from farmers' families, 15.1% from industrial families, 26.2% from commerce and trade, 32.8% from families of the State employees, 10.1% from families of the free professions. The socially lowest classes (workmen, employees etc.) contributed 19.5% of the whole number of pupils.

According to statistics from the 1925/26 school year there were 37 gymnasia, 114 realistic gymnasia, 67 reformed realistic gymnasia, and 60 realistic schools. Of the whole number of 102,912 pupils there attended:

gymnasias 18%, realistic gymnasias 42%, reformed realistic gymnasias 20%, realistic schools 30%. As regards the language of instruction, the secondary schools were divided as follows:

198 secondary schools in which teaching was done in Czechoslovak language, were attended by 73,862 pupils;

4 secondary schools in which teaching was done in Ruthenian language, were attended by 1,594 pupils;



German Real-Gymnasium (Modern School) at Most.

81 secondary schools in which teaching was done in German language, were attended by 23,426 pupils;

3 secondary schools in which teaching was done in Hungarian language, were attended by 3,618 pupils;

1 secondary school in which teaching was done in Polish language, was attended by 412 pupils.

The average number of pupils in a secondary school with Czechoslovak language is therefore 373, with Ruthenian language 398, with German language 289, with Hungarian language 1206, with Polish language 412.

The training of teachers takes place in four-grade normal schools, which rank as secondary schools. In the normal schools pupils may be accepted after having passed a special examination from the

fourth grade of a secondary school or who have finished the course at a grammar school.

Tuition is free, the normal schools are either for men or for women, but mostly coeducational and a model school is always attached to them. Several normal schools have one year courses for graduates from secondary schools who intend to become teachers, or two year courses for women teachers of domestic science (11 all together) and courses for kindergarten nurses (8 in whole). Out of 65 normal schools in the 1925/26 school year there were 13 private (parochial), 3 city, and 49 State schools. As far as the language in which instruction was given is concerned, there were 45 Czechoslovak institutions, 4 Ruthenian, 12 German, 1 Hungarian, in which there were altogether 7735 pupils.

Grammar school teachers are appointed teachers of primary schools, if they have devoted at least 30 months to school service, and have passed a special examination in one of the three following branches: Grammar and History, Mathematics and Natural History, or Technical studies. The teachers' organizations as well as the government establish courses by which teachers may prepare themselves for this examination.

The women-teachers of domestic science (needlework and cooking) are trained in special institutes with 2 year courses, into which they are admitted after having passed a special examination, providing that they are over 17 years old, and have graduated from a 2-year "family" school (see below in connection with professional schools).

Teachers in primary schools have been trying for many years to acquire a university education, and they have established, through their own resources, in Prague and in Brno, schools of higher pedagogical studies in which lectures are given on Saturdays and Sundays, so that country teachers may also attend. The reform of the training of teachers is also officially in preparation, so that in the future teachers may graduate from a complete secondary school and may receive training in primary school work in 1-year pedagogical academies, in grammar school work in a further academic grade.

Secondary school professors receive their education by four years of study at a university. A reform of this instruction with a view to better preparation for school practice and for pedagogical knowledge is being drafted.

Professional instruction has been for years very highly developed and it became even more specialized after the War with reference to the general productive branches of Czechoslovak industry, commerce and agriculture. The number of professional schools doubled after the War, some of them were reorganized from the beginning with reference to the new technique of production, so that since the year 1919 the budget for professional schools has increased sevenfold. The state maintains professional schools either wholly (for example, industrial),

or it pays staff expenses (in commercial schools) or a great part of the whole expenses in the continuation schools. For preparation and specialization of workmen evening courses have in many places been attached to schools. The majority of professional schools accept pupils who have finished a grammar or a lower secondary school. In some kinds of schools (for example, industrial schools) the pupils are selected for admittance up to a maximum number of 40 in one grade, and those who can prove a longer practice in production get the preference.



The Czechoslovak Academy at Prague

The state industrial schools have four grades, are of the same type as the secondary schools, and have, according to the local requirements, some of following branches: Machinery, electro-technical, building construction, chemical, and in some cases, textile, metallurgical and fine mechanics. While these higher schools educate contractors and technical employees, the two-year "masters" schools which are attached to the former, secure training of good experts in the technique in production. In the school year 1925/26 there were 32 industrial schools (22 Czechoslovak, 9 German, 1 Czechoslovak-Hungarian) which were attended by 15,770 pupils, 910 of whom were girls.

In the industrial-art school of Prague the pupils can specialize in drawing, in modelling, in ceramics, in art-embroidery, in decorative architecture, in metallic art, in carving, and in decorative painting.

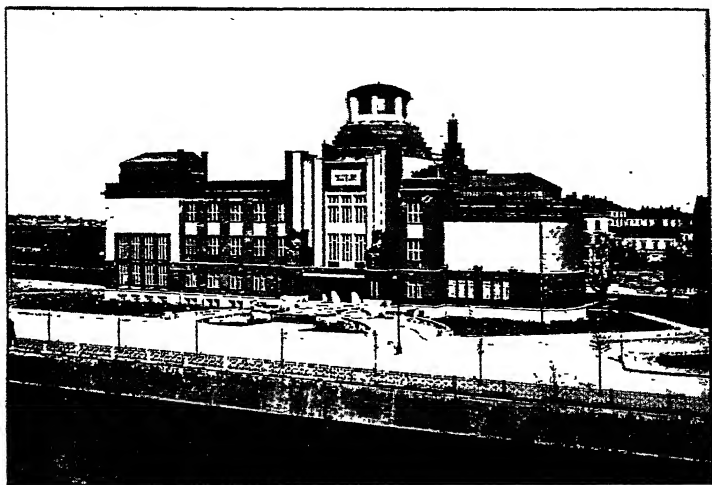
Professional schools in the narrowest sense of the word are not attached to other schools and are usually established for a certain branch, according to the industry or trade which are characteristic of a certain district. They have usually two or three grades, and often an apprentice's certificate instead of a certificate from an advanced or from a secondary school is required. The most common schools are professional textile schools (9 Czechoslovak, 14 German), further professional schools and manual training shops for woodwork (6 Czechoslovak, 2 Ruthenian, 3 German, 1 Czechoslovak-German), shops for metal work (2 Czechoslovak, 1 Ruthenian, 2 German), further 79 schools and courses: for ceramics, glasswork, leather-work, goldsmiths, brewers, graphic workers, jewellers, millers, hotel managers, gobelin weavers, toy makers, embroiderers, for makers of musical instruments, miners, basket makers, lace makers, trimming makers, etc.

Rapid development is shown by a new type of professional school for women's professions, of which there are 110 (78 Czechoslovak, 1 Ruthenian, 27 German and 4 mixed) with 28,000 pupils. These are generally "family" schools having two grades, and accepting pupils from advanced or from lower secondary schools. They are very much in favor with parents. The third grade specializes in dress and underwear making, in millinery, in embroidery, in women domestic professions etc., and the pupils also receive an apprentice's certificate. Also, shorter family courses (for house-keepers) are established, courses for cooking, for mothers, etc. All professional schools of the industrial type amount to 261 with 57,797 pupils (of whom 31,207 were girls). They are maintained by the State but also with its help by autonomous corporations: Provinces, communities, or societies.

Here one must mention the net-work of artisans' continuation schools for apprentices: There were 1863 of such schools with 179,220 pupils (of whom 30,565 were girls). Continuation schools are either general, i. e. without distinction as far as the profession of pupils is concerned (1195), or professional (628), to which the pupils are assigned according to their professions. The teaching is done in general from two to three years for eight hours every week, but only for seven months a year. It is intended to make arrangements so that teaching shall be given for 2 years for 10 months annually. According to new reforms which are planned, the compulsory teaching in continuation schools is to be extended to all youths, after 14 years of age, as long they do not attend other schools, which applies also to factory workmen, girl-servants, etc. The advanced schools will also receive better financial support, as now the State bears about the half of their expenses, the rest being paid by provinces, communities, counties, and chambers of commerce. The teaching will be done as far as possible not in evening hours and not on Sunday morning, and therefore efforts are being made to secure

by degrees their own buildings for the advanced schools in larger towns.

The commercial apprentices also attend compulsory commercial advanced schools (two grades) of which there were 136 with 12,287 pupils (of whom 2878 were girls). In general the commercial schools were formerly maintained partly or in whole by professional corporations, sometimes by private persons. In time however the State increased its support and influence in commercial schools. Some of the institutes are maintained by the State, in some of them government professors



*Industrial Museum at Hradec Králové.
(Architect: M. Kolář.)*

are appointed. The commercial schools accept their pupils from advanced or from lower secondary schools. In Czechoslovakia there are three types of commercial schools: Four-grade commercial academies of secondary school rate, from which the pupils can graduate by a final examination, two-grade public commercial schools (for boys and girls) and an one-year courses which are going to be abolished. In the year 1925/26 there were altogether 32 commercial academies (19 Czechoslovak, 9 German, 1 Czechoslovak-German, 1 Czechoslovak-Hungarian, 1 Ruthenian-Hungarian), public commercial schools amounted to 61 (40 Czechoslovak, 1 Ruthenian, 17 German, 1 Czechoslovak-Ruthenian, 2 Czechoslovak-German), and 10 one-grade commercial courses.

In the 167 commercial schools (exclusive of the advanced) there was a total attendance of 27,305 pupils.

Agricultural education has remained, in contradistinction to all other schools, under the supervision of the Ministry of Agriculture. In a country where agriculture has such immense importance, the agricultural schools are also excellently endowed. Especially the lower schools, serving the rising generation of farmers, have good accommodation for boarders, and the higher schools have school farms. The majority of agricultural schools are maintained by the government. A special feature is that the pupils can advance from lower agricultural schools into the higher and into the Universities.

For the education of agricultural contractors on large farms, four-grade higher agriculture schools are established where the pupils have to pass a final examination. Pupils from grammar schools, lower secondary, or from farmers' schools are accepted. There are 15 higher agriculture schools in the country (4 German, the rest Czechoslovak).

The rising generation of farmers gets its education in two-year farming schools, of which there are 31 (23 Czechoslovak, 7 German, 1 Hungarian). They accept pupils who have attained the age of 14 at least and who have already passed the compulsory schools attendance age and who intend to keep their family farm, etc. For a like purpose are established professional agriculture schools, in which instruction, however, is given in the winter months only (for two years always) to boys, whose presence is required at home in the other months. There are 121 schools of this kind (93 of which are Czechoslovak, 1 Ruthenian, 26 German).

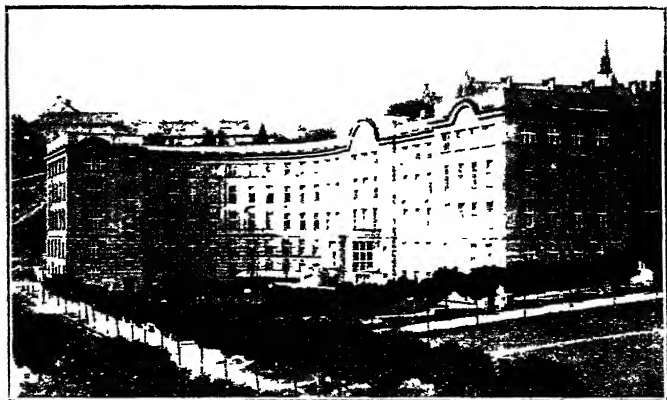
Special agricultural schools are: One year higher cooperative schools in Prague for graduates with distinction of higher agriculture schools, two-year meadow-culture schools, dairy schools, fish-breeding schools, alcohol-manufacturing schools, and poultry-raising schools. There are 2 higher horticultural and vine-growing schools, which are similar to the higher agricultural schools. Besides these there are 8 vine-growing or horticultural one-year and two-year schools.

The agricultural training of girls is also very extensive and various. To two higher schools for boys are attached two higher four-grade schools of house-keeping for girls. Otherwise, the usual type is the one-grade house-keeping school: There are twenty whole-year schools, of which are 16 Czechoslovak, there are 7 whole-year with 2 half-year courses (3 Czechoslovak, 4 German). Besides that there are 11 Czechoslovak schools of domestic economy open in Summer only.

In view of the country's wealth of forests there is a great demand for men on the staff of the forestry service. Czechoslovakia has 4 four-year schools of forestry (3 Czechoslovak, 1 German), and 7 one-year lower schools of forestry for forest keepers.

Agricultural schools, of which there were 248 in operation, were attended by 9022 pupils (1518 of them girls).

The popular agricultural schools are a great acquisition, introduced in the year 1920 as continuation schools for the agricultural rising generation of the country. Wherever these schools exist, attendance is compulsory for the agricultural youth, beginning with 14 years, within a radius of 6 kilometres. These continuation schools, it is expected, will be of the greatest help towards the advancement of



*The Hlava Institute
(Pathological Institute of the Caroline University), Prague.*

farmer's work. In the year 1925/26 there were 728 of these schools opened, and they enrolled 40,000 pupils (22,290 of whom were girls). As to the language in which instruction was given, 497 were Czechoslovak, 112 Ruthenian, 103 German, 7 Hungarian, 4 Polish, and 5 bilingual.

The institutions of higher studies possess, as has been previously stated, on the territory of Czechoslovakia the oldest traditions and are developed in every direction. The Czechoslovak Republic has 4 universities: 3 Czechoslovak in Prague, Brno and Bratislava, 1 German in Prague, 4 Polytechnical schools (2 Czechoslovak and 2 German in Prague and in Brno), and 9 independent colleges or faculties (2 theological faculties and the following colleges: Agricultural, veterinary and mining, academy of arts and 3 schools of higher studies for Russian and Ukrainian émigrés). All schools of higher studies are maintained by the State.

Intermediate between secondary schools and universities is the State Conservatory of Music and Dramatic Art in Prague, which is one of the oldest (it was founded in the year 1811) and most famous in all Europe. Besides, there is a new State Conservatory of Music and Dramatics in Brno, and a German Academy of Musical and Dramatic Art in Prague. Of a type of school of higher learning are the State Archival School in Prague, the Higher School for Social Welfare, the State School of Shortland, 2 schools of higher Pedagogical Studies in Prague and in Brno, the State Librarians School (Czech and German) and Institut Français de Prague. Catholic candidates for ordination are prepared in 25 Theological Institutes.

In all schools of higher learning there were in the Winter term of the year 1925/26 altogether 28,997 students (2,888 women). Of this number one-fourth (7,684) were foreigners, 4,089 from Russia, 124 from Poland, 659 from Rumania, 288 from Yugoslavia, 232 from Bulgaria, 207 from Hungary, etc. Prague became the centre of Slavonic studies and an asylum of émigré youth. In the Charles University there were established professorships of all Slavonic languages and literatures, in three schools of higher learning, established for émigrés in their own languages (a Ukrainian law and philosophical faculty, a Russian law faculty, a Ukrainian agricultural academy), 1,272 students were studying. Foreigners composed, in the polytechnical schools, one-third of all the students, in the universities, one-eighth. The Czechoslovak universities had a total enrolment of 11,363 students (the Charles University in Prague had 8,176 students), the German 3,447, the Czechoslovak polytechnical schools 7,577, the German 3,629, the other independent faculties and schools of higher studies 1,529.

Complete Czechoslovak universities have 5 faculties, theological, law, medicine, philosophy, natural history. At the head of a university is a rector, at the head of each college a dean, both being elected for one year. Polytechnical schools have a similar organization, their faculties are called sections but not all of the schools have a complete number of these sections. To the Czech polytechnical Schools in Prague there is attached also a School of Commerce.

To the schools of Higher Studies access is provided not only for the graduates from secondary schools but also for graduates with distinction from professional schools (to the School of Commerce for the graduates from commercial academies, to the Agricultural Colleges for the graduates from agricultural high schools, to individual divisions of Polytechnical schools for graduates from the industrial schools).

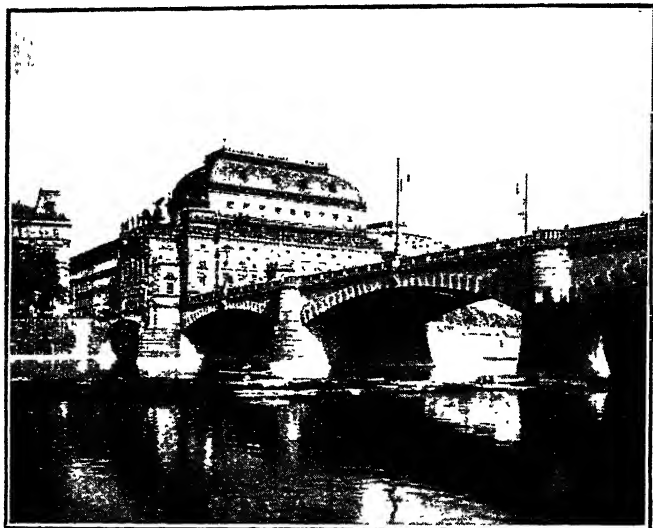
B. Popular Education

Immediately after the War the public instruction was completed by cultural organizations, designed to improve the education of adult persons. Two acts of Parliament were passed, of which the like does not exist in any of the other Central European states, and the results of both are surprising, especially in those districts of the country where previously no societies had charge of cultural affairs.

By virtue of a law of the year 1919 for the organization of popular courses for citizenship there were secured means of strengthening republican opinion regarding the State and of making adults acquainted with the principles of civics, of civic ethics, etc. The original program of this organization was moreover completed gradually by other items of adult education. The law orders that in each court-district a district educational committee, and in every community, a local education committee be appointed. These bodies organize the local as well as the district adult education program, arrange lectures, courses, and other cultural efforts, but they assist also in organizing the public libraries in communities, supervizing the programs in local cinemas, make propaganda for broadcasting in the country districts, collect cultural statistics, etc. These activities are undertaken by the district educational committees either independently, or through local societies. The Ministry of Schools supports all these activities with considerable subventions. In the year 1926 there existed in Czechoslovakia 569 district or city educational (cultural) committees, and 8,442 local ones. These bodies organized in that year 107,871 cultural enterprises. Their 47,873 lectures and courses were attended by more than 3,600,000 persons. Among public cultural actions there are registered for one single year more than 20,000 amateur theatrical performances, 8,000 entertainments for children, 7,000 educational motion picture performances, 5,500 popular social entertainments, 5,000 puppet-shows, 1,000 exhibitions, etc. The number of all the cultural efforts throughout the country is however much higher, for, besides the educational committee, the University-Extensions as well as numerous cultural and gymnastic societies, are very active.

The political parties in particular have organized their own cultural centres. In this regard a prominent place is taken especially by the Social-Democratic workers Academy, the Central Workers school organized by the Czechoslovak Socialist Party, The Free Peasant Studies of the Czechoslovak Republican Party, the Matica slovenská, the Christian Academy, the Artisans' Academy, the Educational Institute of the German Social-Democratic Party, the German Urania Society in Prague, etc. Cultural work is also organized in the Masaryk Institute for the Adult Education (formerly, Cultural Union) in Prague, where

theoretical problems of the adult education are solved, where preparatory work for popular library work and for children's readings matter is done (indices of good literature, distribution of books for community libraries), where, further, preparatory work proceeds for lecturing, for puppet-shows, for amateur theatricals, for art education, (through music and art), for educational motion pictures, for wireless, where correspondence courses are carried on, etc.



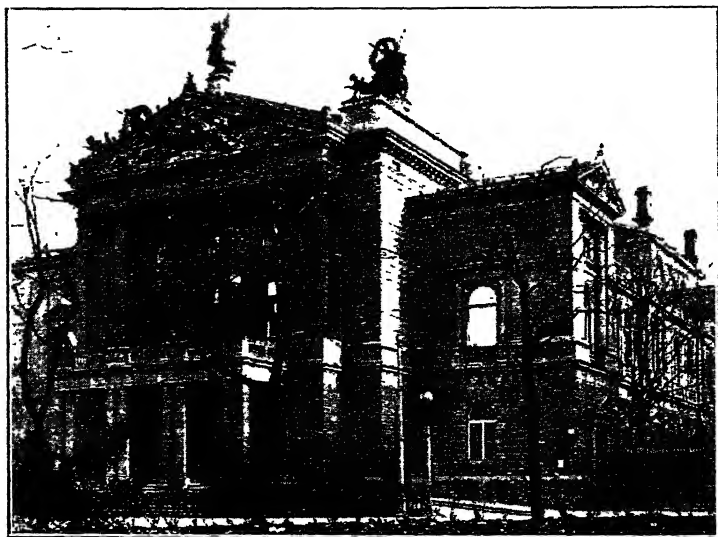
The National Theatre, Prague.

Beside courses and lectures of lesser import there were in operation in the whole country 15 Czechoslovak or German higher popular schools, 5 of which are boarding schools for country pupils, the rest giving lectures in the evening hours. In Slovakia and in Subcarpathian Ruthenia numerous courses for adult illiterates have been organized at government expense.

The Ministry of Schools and Public Instruction supports the popular educational committees and societies not only with money but also material help. It distributes, for example, motion picture projection machines and wireless sets, it facilitates educational motion picture performances, it loans cheap helps for lectures from the Government

stock of slides and films, it publishes a collection of pamphlets for lectures, it supports and organizes meetings for cultural workers.

The second cultural law is the Public Community Libraries Act of the year 1919. It provides that every community (including villages) shall establish and maintain a public library (the bigger national minorities must have a separate library). Whereas in the year 1920 there were 2,400 community libraries with 1,700,000 volumes, in



The German Theatre, Prague.

the year 1926 the number of community libraries amounted to 15,000, with more than 5,000,000 volumes. That these large stocks of books were not left unnoticed by the public, is proved by almost 900,000 registered readers, by 13.5 million loaned books and by library receipts amounting to Kč 16,000,000 for 1926. In Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia there is an average of one library to 865 inhabitants, and to every 100 inhabitants an average of 48 volumes. Of the entire population there are 7.4% readers (Czech 7.6, German 6.9%). To every reader is loaned an average of 18 books. Within one year the books increased by 9.1%, as against 1925. The communities supported their libraries with Kč 12,000,000,

which means that they paid out an average for every inhabitant Kč 1.23 (for Czech communities Kč 1.35, the German Kč 0.95).

In Slovakia, where the community libraries began to develop only a few years ago, there were already 3,214 in the year 1926, with more than 200,000 volumes. There is an average of 78 volumes to every Slovak library, to every reader 5 volumes. There were 105,000 readers in 1926, or 5.2% of the entire Slovak population. In Carpathian Ruthenia there were 69 public community libraries, 4 central libraries, and 216 reading halls. Together they had 60,000 volumes.

The Ministry of Schools supports the community libraries (in the year 1926, 2,179 communities), as a rule not with money, but with good books. Towns of over 10,000 inhabitants appoint a special librarian with a complete secondary school education and with a one-year special training acquired in the State Librarian School. Smaller towns having from 2,000 to 10,000 inhabitants entrust the librarian work to an elected (paid) librarian, usually a teacher who has had a special training in a three-week librarians course. For the librarians in small communities occasional lectures are given, and they receive gratis a hand-book with instructions as to how to carry on a library. District educational committees take care, through elected district librarian supervisors (that is through experienced community librarians), that also the village libraries receive good reading matter. The State supervision over community libraries is carried on by four librarian instructors.

Also in the army the education of the soldiers is looked after, partly by means of numerous libraries and reading rooms which are run entirely by the soldiers themselves in the so-called Soldiers' Reading and Amusement Clubs (at the present they have 400,000 volumes) partly in special agricultural and artisan courses. Illiterate recruits are obliged to attend special courses, where yearly about 4,000 soldiers are taught to read and to write.

RELIGION AND THE CHURCHES

Owing to historical and national reasons Church life in the Czechoslovak Republic is very complicated, and even confused. When the new State was formed towards the end of 1918, nearly 95% of the population in the western portion of the Republic, which had been under Austrian rule, belonged to the Roman Catholic Church; this was, as a matter of fact, the State Church. There existed also two types of Evangelical Churches, some recognized by the State, other as free religious communities that on principle did not seek State recognition. The Churches recognized by the State were: the Evangelical Reformed Church, the Evangelical Church of the Augsburg Confession and the Ochranov (Herrnhut) Union of Brethren ("Moravian Church"); the free bodies were: the Free Reformed Church (a Congregational body), the Chelčický Union (Baptists), and various small missionary societies. All these Churches, and especially the three first mentioned, contained members belonging to the different nationalities. The Reformed Church was almost entirely Czech, but two German congregations belonged to it. The Evangelical Church of Brethren was for the most part Czech, but it also had German members. The Augsburg Church had a German majority and an autonomous Czech minority; in addition, Silesian Poles were members of it. The organisation was on the basis of creed and not of nationality. The dioceses were indeed separated according to nationality, but they were organically united in a central organisation of the entire Church within the frontiers of Austria.

In the eastern portion (Slovakia) some 75% of the population were Roman Catholics, the dioceses being administrated from the territory of present-day Hungary. The remainder of the population belonged to two Evangelical Churches; the stronger one was of the Augsburg Confession, whilst the smaller one was a Reformed Church. The organisation of the former was on the basis of creed irrespective of nationality; it had a very large Slovak majority, with German congregations in the neighbourhood of Bratislava and at Spiš, and Magyar congregations in the south and centre of Slovakia. The great majority of the members of the Reformed Church were of Magyar nationality, but there was a Slovak minority which in the former organisation had not possessed any share in the Church administration.

When the Czechoslovak Republic was established there existed in Carpathian Ruthenia two Churches: the Greek Catholic (or Uniate) Church and the Eastern Orthodox Church, together with a Roman Catholic and Protestant minority.

In the western part of the Republic there was a small, and in the eastern part a fairly considerable percentage of Jews, together with a not very considerable number of persons outside the organized Churches.

It is clear, therefore, that the religious life of the Republic was from the outset very varied. If we consider also the fact that Church regulations relating to matrimonial rights, civil marriage, change of denomination, Church schools and other affairs were not identical throughout the Republic (Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia had previously been administrated by Austria, and Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia by Hungary), the complexity and difficulty of the conditions become still more evident.

*

In the new Republic fundamental changes were made in the situation of the Churches. There were various reasons for this. One was the new political régime as determined by the Constitution. The Constitutional Charter laid down the principle of equal rights for all citizens irrespective of differences in creed. But because the Austrian laws based on canon law were not expressly repealed, the experts in Church law and also certain Churches are able to assert that according to the Constitution the difference between the recognized and unrecognized religious bodies has not ceased to exist, and that the Roman Catholic Church has remained as a privileged corporation in public law in the sense of the decree of May 20th, 1874, No. 50 in the Imperial Code. But the Catholic Church is in no sense a State Church. It is the Church of the majority of the population; protection and equality of rights are guaranteed to the minority Churches. In consequence of this inexplicitness of the law, the relation of the State to the Churches, and particularly to the Roman Catholic Church, is not firmly established. In former Austria the Catholic Church possessed certain considerable legal privileges and public safeguards, in return for which it granted the State valuable rights, especially with regard to the nomination of its dignitaries. In the new Republic the Catholic Church has been unwilling to recognize that the sovereign rights of the former ruler have been handed on to the Republic and its constitutionally appointed authorities. On the other hand, the Government, which was definitely Socialist in composition, considered that it was concerned with the internal affairs of the Church (the appointment of the Archbishop of Prague and the administration and delimitation of the Slovak dioceses). This attitude was due to the post-revolutionary mood of the Socialist parties, for it was taken for granted that the Church would be separated from the State; the watchword of a free Church in a free State was repeated, and the new phrase, "A free Church in a sovereign State", was coined. But effect was not given to these aspirations either in the Constitutional Charter or in the legislation.

Another reason for the very great changes effectuated in Church

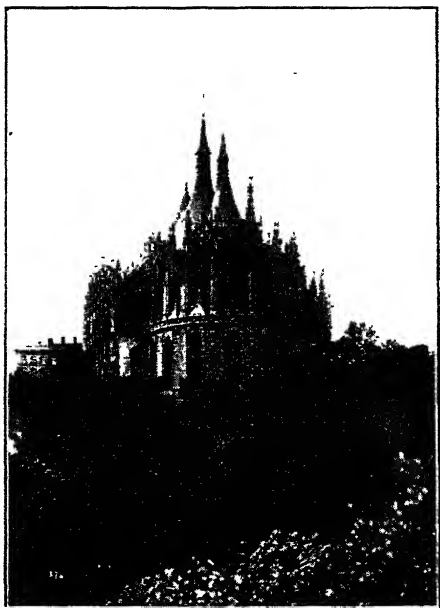
affairs was the attitude of the population towards the authorities of the Roman Catholic Church.

The system of an Established Church always arouses in every country a certain amount of opposition: and this opposition is still greater when the population is not in sympathy with the State authorities, as was the case in former Austria which was largely anti-Czech. The union of the Catholic Church with the Austrian State and with the Hapsburg dynasty, the memories of the cruelty of the Counter-Reformation and of national oppression produced in the Czech people a feeling of opposition to the Church. Further, the War aroused and strengthened radical anti-religious tendencies.

Under Austria secession from the Roman Catholic Church was a risky procedure, and no person was permitted to hold any position in the public service (such as that of a teacher or an official) without being a member of one of the Churches. An obvious consequence of political independence was freedom of conscience. The growing spirit of democracy penetrated into the Church of Rome though

conservative and aristocratic in its substance; even a portion of its priests demanded Church reforms involving abstention from politics and a frank recognition of popular and national needs. Moreover, a section of the working people, influenced by Marxism and anarchism, was hostile to the Church, whilst a section of the professional classes was alienated from religious life. While in some people the horrors and senselessness of the War tended to shake the foundations of belief in God, on the other hand, many people felt a vital need of religion.

These internal causes led to revolutionary changes in religious life.



Kutná Hora: the Church of St. Barbara.

It is calculated that out of six million Czechs (the Slovaks were not affected, on the whole, by this movement), nearly two millions changed their Church membership during the first three years after the War. Under the influence of the watchword "Away from the Church", some 600.000 persons left the Roman Catholic Church and remained without a creed. About 150.000 joined the Evangelical Churches, particularly the Evangelical Church of Bohemian Brethren (which in December 1918 was formed in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia*) from the former Reformed and Augsburg Churches) and also the smaller Evangelical Churches; after the foundation of the Republic in October 1918 the Methodist Mission was established, and the Free Reformed Church was re-named the Unity of Bohemian Brethren. A desire was felt for an amalgamation of all the Czech Evangelical Churches, but owing to difficulties of principle and organisation this was not effected. The idea however did not die, and in 1926 there was formed a Federation of the Evangelical Churches irrespective of differences in creed and nationality and with the preservation of the separate Churches; at present the Federation comprises only the Czech Churches (with one exception) and the Slovak Church; the German and Magyar Churches adopt a waiting attitude. By reason of this movement Czech Protestantism has grown to the extent of nearly 50%, and in the south and west of Bohemia has reached towns and villages where previously it had no footing.

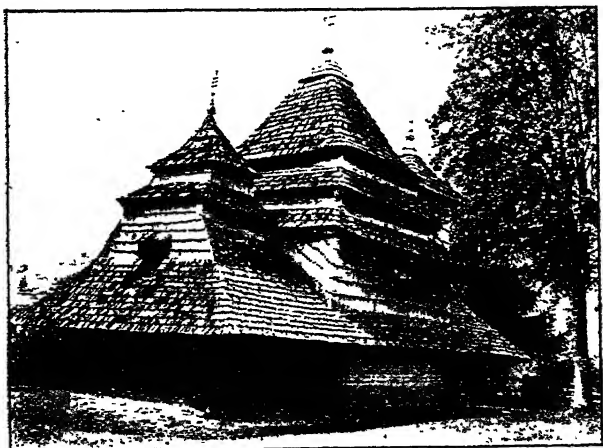
The most characteristic feature of the modern religious movement is the foundation of the new Czechoslovak Church. An effort had been made by a number of Catholic priests (organised in the "Society of Catholic Clergy") to introduce into the Roman Catholic Church certain reforms, such as democratisation of the Church administration, the use of the national language in Divine service, and the abolition of celibacy. When the Vatican rejected these proposals, the priests who had put them forward seceded from the Roman Catholic Church and in company with some 600.000 members of the laity (with later additions the number is now nearly one million) founded a national Catholic Church which is democratic in constitution and administration; influenced by Catholic Modernism and natural science, it is free in respect of dogma; it accepts the traditions of the Early Church before the Great Schism, and also the traditions of the Czech Reformation. Its original tendency in the direction of Serbian Eastern Orthodoxy was abandoned, and it was constituted as an independent Church. (A fraction formed an Eastern Orthodox Church which is joined to that existing in Carpathian Ruthenia.)

*) An amalgamation did not take place in Slovakia because the lines of demarcation between the different creeds coincided with those between the different nationalities.

After these secessions the membership of the Roman Catholic Church in Czechoslovakia was more or less stabilized at about 75% of the population. What it lost in numbers it gained in closer organisation and systematic propaganda amongst the laity. It is assisted also by the political party known as the People's Party.

The Catholics in Slovakia are organized largely in the Slovak People's Party.

The Evangelical Church of the Augsburg Confess-



Wooden Church at Užok in Carpathian Ruthenia.

ion in Slovakia broke away from the central organisation in Hungary and retained its German minority so as to prevent it from joining the organisation of the German Evangelical Church in the Czechoslovak Republic; it also retained its Magyar congregations. On the other hand, the Reformed Church, the majority of whose members are Magyars, long endeavoured to maintain unity of organisation with the parent Church in Hungary; it is now reluctantly accepting the task of organizing itself within the frontiers of the Republic and is preparing to grant a certain measure of autonomy to its Slovak minority.

The Conservative trend that manifested itself in the Government Coalition in 1925 strengthened the position of the elements opposed to the idea of a separation of the Church from the State. Amongst other things, considerations in regard to Slovakia prevented the transform-

ation of the denominational schools into State schools and led to an increase of the State grant for the payment of stipends to the clergy. Demands are now being made by the People's Party for establishing denominational schools also in the western half of the State. The negotiations for an adjustment of the relations between the State and the Vatican which recalled its Nuncio in 1925 on account of the participation of the Czechoslovak Government in the Hus celebrations came to an end by a "modus vivendi", according to which the delimitation of the Slovak dioceses coincides with the State boundaries and the State has the right of veto at the appointment of Church dignitaries.

After the State revolution of October 1918, there was talk of a separation of the Catholic Theological Faculties from the universities. Hence the new Hus Theological Faculty in Prague was founded on an independent basis. At the same time it was proposed that a Catholic Theological Faculty should be attached to the Komenský (Comenius) University in Bratislava, but the scheme did not materialize in consequence of the opposition and passive resistance of the Roman Catholic Church authorities. For different reasons — owing to the opposition of the Magyar Reformed Church — the plan for the foundation of a trilingual Protestant Theological Faculty at Bratislava did not come into effect. In Bratislava there is a theological college for Evangelicals of the Augsburg Confession, and a theological seminary has been established for the Reformed Church at Lučenec.

FOLK ART AND COTTAGE INDUSTRIES

Folk art still continues to occupy an important position in Czechoslovak life; it still retains characteristics which in many respects differ widely from those of Western European art, and by the inclusion of Slovakia within the territory of the Republic its range and significance have been considerably widened.

Whilst in the western portion of the Republic as far as the River



Peasant Costumes at Blatnice, Moravia

Morava certain western influences may be detected in folk art, the tendency in the remainder of Czechoslovakia, from the River Morava to the extreme tip of Carpathian Ruthenia, is practically entirely in the direction of age-long tradition and conservatism; the small changes that exist have occurred only as a result of foreign influences from the north, east or south, of importations introduced by religious sects, or of wars. The River Morava may be regarded as the main dividing-line between the west and east of the Republic in respect of folk art and industry.

During the last fifty years or thereabouts, the rapid spread of

education and communications in the western part has led to the emancipation of the common people from old customs, the wearing of national costumes, and the old-fashioned manner of life, and to their adopting new economic forms in agriculture and trade. Folk industry has been transformed into a regularly organized cottage industry with central commercial organisations either of co-operatives or of private individuals. To-day most people know of the toys and lace made in the Ore Mountains and the Šumava, the woven goods and the linen made in the Šumava and the Giant Mountains, the wood-



Group of Women at Domažlice, Bohemia.

work produced in the Šumava, the Ore Mountains and at the foot of the Giant Mountains, and the basket-making trade which is so well organized in the Bohemian-Moravian Highlands and at Morkovice near Vyškov. Mention should also be made of the entire districts that are engaged in embroidery-work, especially the white embroideries produced in the neighbourhood of Chrudim, the glass industry, and the cottage industry producing glass bijouterie at the foot of the Giant Mountains. All these folk industries are now fostered by special training schools and by the State Institute for Cottage Industries at Prague which has won recognition through its lace and toy exhibits in various foreign exhibitions (Paris 1925, Copenhagen 1926, Stuttgart and Frankfurt).

In the western part of the Republic the wearing of peasant costume has largely fallen into disuse and clothing of the Western European

type is adopted; national costume is still worn, however, by the Chods in the neighbourhood of Domažlice and by the peasants in the district of Vyškov in Moravia, whilst near Jihlava certain parts only of the costume are still retained. The customs that survive are connected with holiday festivals and religious ceremonies and pilgrimages

The eastern part of the Republic is quite different from the western part and may be said to begin, from the cultural point of view, with the districts of Kyjov, Bzenec, Hodonín and Břeclava which, although situated west of the River Morava, are inhabited by the Moravian Slovaks and



Popular Festivities at Pištany, Slovakia.

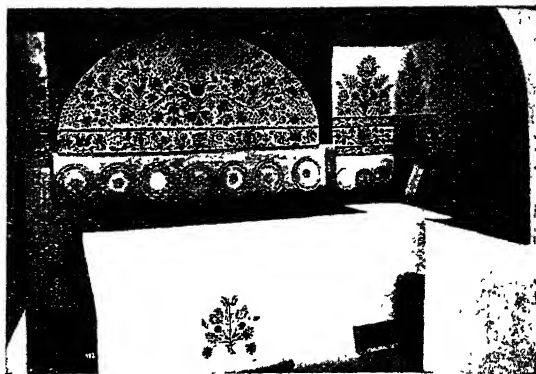
form, together with the Valach region, a part of Slovakia and of the Slavonic region of the Carpathians as far east as the Rumanian frontier.

The main occupations in this area are pastoral and agricultural, the latter tending to diminish in favour of the former.

Throughout the whole of this region the men have long trousers (in the western part short trousers with stockings used to be worn) and short coats worn hanging on one shoulder without the arms being in the sleeves. In the western part of the Republic long coats and over-coats with sleeves are worn. The women's costumes are richly embroidered and are of the type in use in the 18th and earlier centuries. The materials are of wool, hemp and flax and are home-made. There is an equal similarity in the popular customs and in the preservation of the folk song in this eastern part of the Republic.

The River Morava is not an exact dividing-line between east and west in regard to every one of these branches of folk art. In some respects the boundary moves a little towards the east as far as the River Váh or to the west as far as the towns of Kyjov and Bručnice.

The eastern cultural area of the Republic may be divided into two regions: a mountainous one and a lowland one. The mountainous region extends to the north of the Valach district from Trenčín, Prievidza and Zvolen and is characterized by its harsh climate, its forests, and scarcity of arable land, its abundance of pasture-land, and



A Painted Kitchen at Čataja, Slovakia

its sheep-rearing and cattle-rearing. The cottages are made of timber and there is an active timber industry. Many of the men are engaged in forestry. The main work at home is done by the women and children. Flax and hemp which are grown on the hill-slopes as well as wool and sheepskins are made into articles of clothing.

During the long winter season the women are engaged in embroidery-work and sewing, whilst the men make tools and carved wooden articles.

The folk songs correspond to the character of the mountains. They are long-drawn-out and echoes are a special feature. After centuries the originality of customs and folk art is unchanged.

The lowland region, both in Moravia and Slovakia, is characterized by regular agricultural work, the cultivation of the wine and partly of maize and pumpkins. There is an abundance of good clay for building material and art pottery. The brightness and gaiety of the people may be observed in their songs. Here and there one notices slight traces of the influence of German and Magyar folk art, together with memories

of former Turkish wars. Influences of the later Rococo and Empire periods stills survive.

The common people take pleasure in wearing richly coloured costumes and have sufficient money to purchase silk and brocades for this purpose. Village dances and festivities are very popular. The houses are constructed from clay bricks or from stamped clay as, for instance, in the neighbourhood of Komárno. Art pottery is carried on as a cottage industry in the region of Bratislava (at Stupavá, Leváry, Modrá, Dehtice, and Komárno), in Nová Baň, Pukanec, Halič (near Lučenec),



Slovak Popular Art: Ceramics.

Poltár, the district of Rimavská Sobota, and in Šivětice near Velká Revúč. It is carried on also in the north in the neighbourhood of Sabinov, Košice, Užhorod and Beregsáz, as well as in Moravia in the region of Hodonín and Uherské Hradiště. In many of these places the farmers are also potters; also the houses are painted and decorated with clay.

The houses are thatched not only as a protection against the cold in winter and the heat in summer, but also in order to make use of the abundant straw. Straw is employed for the manufacture of small baskets, fancy goods and doormats, and as fuel for bread-making.

There is a striking difference in the cut of the peasant costumes between the mountainous and lowland regions. In the mountains short fur coats, waistcoats and sandals are worn by the men, whilst the women wear short skirts and light, short fur coats or shawls.

In the lowlands both men and women wear long fur coats extending to below the knee, topboots on account of the mud, and in the summer

wide, airy shirts with sleeves. In both regions the folk art, in comparison with that of the neighbouring peoples in the east is purely Slavonic, although it contains old elements of European art-forms in general. It corresponds to the nature of the country and environment.

The folk industries in this eastern portion of the Republic are still on a primitive level as regards methods of manufacture and marketing. The goods are sold mainly in markets and in the very interesting fairs which are held in the small towns when the inhabitants



Cottages at Čičmany.

of the valleys and mountains come in their picturesque costumes to market their wares. As a rule they barter them for foodstuffs and grain.

Rich ornamentation is a special feature of the products of the cottage industries. Slovak embroideries, which were formerly exported from Bratislava (Pressburg) by the Magyar association "Isabella" (now the "Děťva" Society) are world-famous. The old Slovak co-operative society "Lípa" at Turč. Sv. Martin and the Folk Industry Co-operative Society at Uherská Skalice are still in existence. Lace-making is extensively carried on in the neighbourhood of Sered and Prešov, in Levoča and Nižná Haná, in the region of Báňská Bystřice, and in Hodruš near B. Štiavnice. Both the laces and the embroideries show a great variety of harmonious colouring.

Home-made linen and wool fabrics are very popular,

especially variegated types with red, yellow and black stripes. They are made in all the districts on the Carpathian slopes, but towards the east they give place to coloured embroideries. There are some interesting primitive methods of weaving and of lace and glove manufacture, of an almost pre-historic character. An important folk industry in some districts is engaged in the manufacture of popular dyed sheepskin coats; but the most widespread occupation in this region is the manufacture of all kinds of wooden articles, from wooden nails to large frames and dairy utensils.

Up to the present these folk industries are organized only to a small extent, although there is a great abundance of timber and of water power for the generating of electricity. The timber is mostly exported as raw material. Rushes for basket making are also exported.

Ceramic ware enjoys an excellent reputation and is exported along the Danube to the Balkans; but the possibilities of the ceramic industry have not yet been adequately exploited.

Although during the last ten years schools have been established in the most remote valleys in the eastern portion of the Republic, the population still remains little touched by the influences of the outside world. It is a region which has not yet been very much investigated. It would amply repay a protracted visit by ethnographers and students of folk lore as well as by business men with organizing talent. The great differences that still exist between the eastern and western portions of Czechoslovakia will gradually disappear in the course of a few years of diligent work. With these differences there will disappear also the prevailing type and extent of the folk art and industry which are so original and so characteristic of this large section of the Republic.

PLASTIC ART

When we review the development of Czechoslovak plastic art since the creation of the independent Czechoslovak Republic in the autumn of 1918, one may say, even after exercising the greatest degree of modesty and self-criticism, that in all branches of this art an important and positive advance has been made. The fatigue which was obvious in the oppressive circumstances during the Great War did not affect the work of our plastic artists so deeply as to break the bonds of tradition and to nullify the achievement of the generation of artists who at the beginning of the new century were just starting on their careers of uncompromising adherence to progress in art. That generation was unfortunately overtaken by a cruel fate owing to the loss, in the world upheaval, of its best representatives; yet it passed on its programme of artistic youth to the following generation of artists who were reaching maturity shortly before the outbreak of the War. To these two generations must to-day be added a third generation of the youngest artists who, either independently or by following in the footsteps of their elders, are seeking an expression of their youth and are thus preventing the stoppage of the development of modern Czechoslovak art in its fluidity and European rhythm. For in modern Czechoslovak art are manifested, sometimes clearly and sometimes faintly, here advantageously and there harmfully, but always with logical necessity, all the changes in style of modern European art; indeed it may be added that modern Czechoslovak art is almost complete in its variety of "isms". And thus there live side by side in Czechoslovakia—as elsewhere—several generations of artists who, if we include the older men of the days of historical genre imitations, vary between the historical tendency and academic spirit of last century on the one hand, and impressionism, cubism and new realism on the other.

The art education of young people in Czechoslovakia is served by two central schools—if we leave out of account the technical schools—both of which are situated in Prague: the Academy of Plastic Arts and the School of Industrial Art. Their annual exhibitions show work which is surprising from the points of view of quantity, quality and precision. These schools have, as in other countries, also their defects which are connected with the question of art training in general, but are not, thanks to the personalities of the instructors, bulwarks of a dead academic spirit and of formalism; on the contrary, they enter very effectively into the living production of the present day. The plastic artists are organized in several associations, of which the main centres are Prague, Brno and Bratislava, and these associations have various art programmes, ranging from a conservative to the most modern tendency. The State supports plastic art partly by

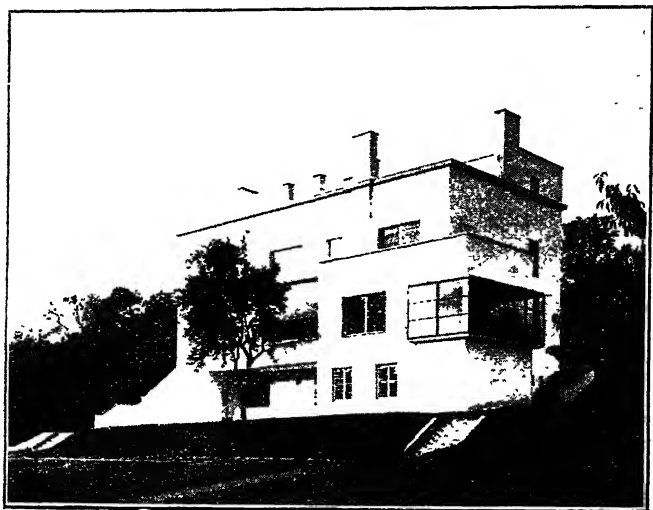
means of subventions and partly by purchases of works of art for the decoration of official buildings and particularly for the future State Gallery. The foundation stone of this Gallery was laid in Prague in the spring of 1927 on the bank of the river Vltava in the midst of the gardens, above which stretches the magnificent panorama of Hradčany. This new building will fulfil the long-felt desire of art circles for a large art museum and is planned by the architect J. Gočár in the simple-line style of to-day. To it will be transferred also the collections of the Modern Gallery, the aim of which is to gather together a model collection of modern art, beginning with the Czechoslovak classics of last century.

It is natural that the developing life and the demands of the administration of the new State, the increased importance of its main centres and above all of the capital, Prague, should impose a large number of tasks upon Czechoslovak architecture. In Prague, whose street traffic is unceasingly growing and where the town is steadily assuming the character of a great metropolis, there have been and still are being decided important questions of regulation, the building of new suburbs, the investigation of park areas, and the creation of new communications between the more distant suburbs and the centre of the city. There is a need for new bridges over the Vltava river on the one hand, and on the other hand, for viaducts to cross the valleys between the built-up slopes in different parts of the town. Satisfactory plans have been secured as a result of competitions and many of these schemes are either being put into effect or will be so in the course of the next few years. For government offices, ministries, higher educational institutions, scientific institutes, and for communal, commercial



Jan Štursa: Wounded.

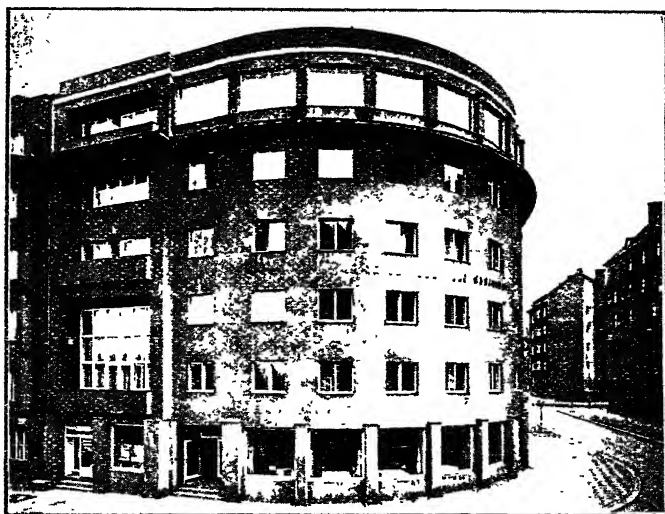
and religious purposes there have been erected in Prague during the last few years numerous buildings, in the planning of which architects of various generations take part. In the central part of the city there are being laid out the new University Buildings, the work of the founder of modern Czechoslovak architecture, J. Kotěra (died in 1923); the building of the Philosophical Faculty, planned by the architect Sakař in the historical-reminiscent style of last century, is nearing completion; in the same neighbourhood the architect Rojt is directing the construct-



A Villa. (Architect: M. Wiesner.)

ion of a large, simply-conceived Municipal Library. In the New Town have been erected large banks (e. g., the Legionaries' Bank, the work of the architect Gočár, with a richly coloured articulated façade), insurance buildings (e. g., that of the Riunione Adriatica di Sicurtà, by the architect Janák), the central buildings of great industrial enterprises (e. g., the Škoda Works, by the architect Janák, and "Ferra", by the architect Říha), and ministry buildings (planned by the architects Hübschmann and Enge'). A very attractive construction in the inner circle of the town is the School of Agriculture, designed by the architect Gočár in a monumental, simple style, with large, plain areas on the fronts; mention should also be made of the Tobacco Monopoly building

and of that of the publishing firm of "Orbis" (both by the architect Dryák), whilst the modern Samples Fair Palace (planned by the architects Tyl and Fuchs), and the central building of the Electrical Undertakings (planned by the architects Beneš and Kříž), are still under construction. On the present-day periphery of the town have been erected the monumental Military Geographical Institute (by the architect Feuerstein) and the extensive buildings of the Municipal Gasworks (by the architect Kalous). The latest architectural styles are also shown



The "Záchrana" Home at Žižkov-Prague. (Architect: M. Tyl.)

with success in the construction of mansions of flats and emporiums in the main streets of Prague, large plate-glass windows being the main feature of their façades. The architects Krejcar, Kysela and others are responsible for these constructions. The plans of most of the public buildings were the winning results of competitions. Attention should also be drawn to the extensive new areas of villa colonies which encircle the growing and busy central districts of Prague.

The interesting history of the successive periods in the building of the Castle of Prague can to-day be followed from the earliest times by examining the excavations which have been, and are still being, carried out. A new phase was reached when the Slovene architect Plečnik, who left Prague

only a few years ago—a fellow-student of Kotěra's in Wagner's school at Vienna, and later Professor of Architecture at the School of Industrial Art in Prague—adapted certain parts of the Castle for new purposes (e.g., the residence of the President of the Republic), improved the Castle courtyards, and in particular designed and completed the so-called "gardens of Paradise" in a pure and to a certain extent historico-reminiscent style, attention being paid especially to the spacious effect of the whole.

The building movement has not been limited, of course, merely to the capital, but has been going on also in other towns in proportion to their importance. In addition to Brno and Bratislava one should mention in this connexion especially Hradec Králové (Königgrätz) which with its numerous buildings designed by Kotěra and Gočár stands in the forefront of modern Czechoslovak towns. Numerous large exhibitions—cultural, agricultural, etc.—afford an opportunity for the construction of temporary buildings. The exhibition building at Mladá Boleslav, designed by the architect Kroha, attracted great attention in 1927 by reason of its modern architectonic appearance. An exhibition building is under construction at Brno for the jubilee Exhibition of Contemporary Culture in the Czechoslovak Republic.

Amongst the buildings which Czechoslovakia has had built in other countries, mention should be made of the Czechoslovak Legation in Warsaw (planned by the architect Machoň), and the Czechoslovak Exhibition Pavilions at Venice (planned by the architect Novotný), at Paris in the Exhibition of Decorative Arts of 1925 (by the architect Gočár), and at Milan (by the architect Roškot).

The art movement in painting, sculpture and graphic art may be seen also from a study of the various exhibitions. The best idea of this can be obtained from the statistics of the exhibitions held at Prague in the years 1922, 1923, and 1924. In this period there were held at Prague alone some 209 exhibitions, the number of art exhibits totalling 21,438. In the succeeding years this number increased still further. The exhibition movement is fostered above all by three art societies, one of which in particular, the Mánes Society, has organized large exhibitions of work accomplished by past and present members, and also of foreign art. In 1920 it arranged large exhibitions of the works of Josef Mánes, the founder of modern Czech painting; in 1923 an exhibition of the works of M. Švabinský; in 1926 a posthumous exhibition of the works of the sculptor J. Štursa; and in 1927 a posthumous exhibition of the works of O. Gutfreund. Of the large exhibitions of foreign art the most important have been the Exhibition of French Art of the 19th and 20th centuries, the Exhibition of Polish Art (1927), and the Exhibition of Bulgarian Art. Czechoslovakia is naturally represented at art exhibitions in foreign countries (Paris, Venice, Warsaw, Cracow, Berne, Dresden,

Stuttgart, Ljubljana, Zagreb, Belgrade and other cities), the exhibits being supported and arranged by the State or sent on the initiative of the art societies. These associations also hold annual exhibitions of the contemporary work of their members and exhibitions of contemporary foreign art.

As regards Czechoslovak painting, we may mention, in addition to the group of painters who take realism or impressionism as their starting-point, the group whose orientation is more intellectual (expression-



The Zeman Café at Brno. (Architect: M. Fuchs.)

ism and cubism). Although the generation of artists, who reached maturity about the year 1900 and who included in their number the great Czech impressionist A. Slavíček (died in 1910), is represented by the painter and eminent graphic artist Max Švabinský, and although at the head of the younger generation, which is divided into artists who do not hesitate to study the great art of Western Europe and also into those who hold fast to home traditions, there stand on the one hand the cubist E. Filla, the self-taught expressive V. Špála, the experimenting, spirited J. Čapek and the fine designer and colourist Kremlička, and on the other hand V. Rabas who is racy of the soil of his native country, it is not yet possible in this many-sided generation with all its modern tendencies to find the leader.

Czechoslovak sculpture has suffered great losses in the

last few years by the death of the classical Czech sculptor J. V. Myslbek (in 1922), who created the basis for the development of modern Czech sculpture, and by the premature deaths of two very great sculptors, Jan Štursa († 1925) and Otto Gutfreund († 1927). Štursa was a pupil of Myslbek's, and Gutfreund studied under Bourdelle. Each of them in his

own way was modern in tendency and placed Czech plastic art on the level of contemporary foreign sculpture. To-day the most expressive personality in the field of Czech plastic art is the mystic, Bílek. Štursa's teaching position at the Academy of Plastic Arts was taken by O. Španiel who has a colleague there B. Kafka, whilst plastic art is taught at the School of Industrial Art by Rodin's pupil and friend, J. Mařatka.

During the ten years of independence of the Czechoslovak Republic numerous monuments have been erected, and many competitions have not yet been made. Štursa designed a monument for Litomyšl in honour of the celebrated Czech composer B. Smetana, and the monument of the poet Sv. Čech in Prague, and at his death he was working on a monument of J. A. Komenský (Comenius) for Amsterdam; Bílek design-



*The Olympic Palace at Prague.
(Architect: M. Krejcar.)*

ed the Hus memorial in Kolín; Gutfreund designed the monument of President Masaryk at Hradec Králové and the memorial to the Czech authoress Božena Němcová at Ratibořice; Kafka executed the memorial to the politician and writer Havlíček-Borovský for Německý Brod; Karel Dvořák is working on the monument to Ernest Denis for Prague and on

a large war memorial for the cemetery of Père Lachaise in Paris. In addition to these there have been erected throughout the Republic a great number of war and post-war memorials, etc., which of course are often without any very high artistic value.

A great deal of work is done in Czechoslovakia in the field of statuary, the most important examples of which are seen in the groups decorating the Prague Legiobanka (Legionaries' Bank) by Štursa and Gutfreund, the ornamentation of the building of the Riunione Adriatica di Sicurtà (Štursa, Dvořák, Kafka) or that of the Hlávka Bridge (Štursa, Gutfreund).

There exist side by side various tendencies also in sculpture. It is gratifying that the younger generation—the pupils of Štursa and Gutfreund—are developing into modern, independent and satisfactory plastic artists.

Much successful work is being accomplished also in the field of the graphic arts. The "Hollar" Society has amongst its members the best of the Czech graphic artists who are headed by Max Švabinský and also by T. F. Šimon whose reputation extends beyond his own country.

It may be stated that, of late, Czech graphic art has won notable successes abroad (for example, at London and Warsaw in 1927), thanks to its technical excellence and high level of achievement.



Max Švabinský:

Harvest

INDUSTRIAL ART

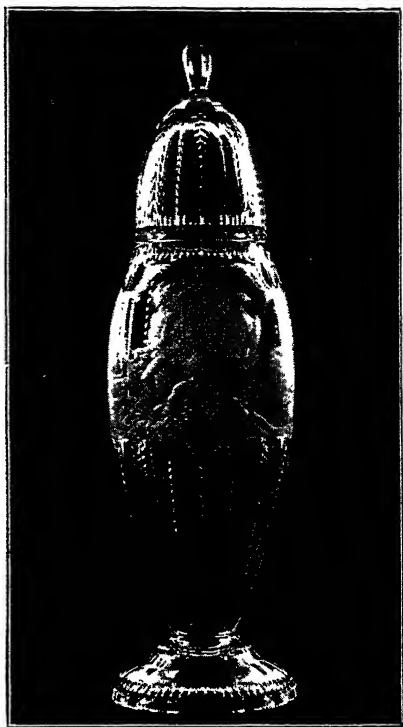
The first opportunity which the Czechoslovak Republic had of making itself known to the international public in the field of industrial art was at the International Exhibition of Decorative and Industrial Arts held in Paris in 1925. In a number of branches of industrial art there were numerous splendid exhibits from Czechoslovakia and this country achieved a noteworthy success. As regards the awards of the highest prizes, Czechoslovakia gained the first place, out of twenty nations, after France. Czechoslovakia was successfully represented by its industrial art also in a number of other important international exhibitions: in Italy (Monza), North America, Germany (Stuttgart, Leipzig, Hamburg), Holland, Denmark and other countries.

Among the branches of industrial art which in Czechoslovakia has the oldest traditions, the premier position is occupied by glass. Its glass objects, owing to the unique purity of the material and to splendid artistic workmanship, dominated the world market as far back as the 17th century, despite the severe competition of other countries and particularly of Venetian glass. Crystal glass—the great discovery of the Bohemian glassmakers—which was absolutely pure and hard, and the sparkling appearance of which was enhanced by excellent engraving and cutting, was to be found in every European cultural centre from Lisbon to Moscow and from Stockholm to Constantinople. The end of the 18th century witnessed a further invention of the Bohemian glassmakers—coloured, stratified and decorated cut glass—against which other countries were again unable to compete. These old tried modes of artistic execution have been carried on up to the present day with the greatest success, and Bohemian glassmakers have added improvements in the direction of colour effects, iridescence, and mother-of-pearl tints. In addition to these kinds of glass manufacture, blown glass and pressed glass are also made. At the present time there are in Czechoslovakia about 150 glass foundries. An important independent branch of glass manufacture in Czechoslovakia is that of Jablonec (Gablonz) ware, large quantities of which are exported to America and to India. Jablonec ware consists partly of glass beads and partly of bangles. The extent of the glass industry is shown by the fact that in 1925 there were exported from Czechoslovakia over 170 000 000 kilos of glass to the value of some 1,300,000,000 Czechoslovak crowns. The cutting and engraving of semi-precious stones, which gave rise to these same processes in the Bohemian glass industry, are carried on with perfection in Bohemia in the region of Turnov, the material being partly obtained locally.

The most important industrial art products after Bohemian glass are ceramics which in Czechoslovakia have an equally old tradition. Habany and Holič ceramics have achieved world fame. The porcelain

industry in Bohemia is particularly favoured by the excellent kaolin obtained in this country, although its development was hindered by Austria owing to fear of its competition with Vienna. The first factory in Bohemia was established in 1792. In 1883 there were 30 such factories in Bohemia, mostly in the basin of the river Ohře and in the district of Karlovy Vary (Carlsbad). To-day there are in Czechoslovakia some 116 factories for fine ceramics, 70 of these factories being engaged in the manufacture of porcelain Dinner services, tea services and coffee services and articles of general practical use, together with luxury articles and white and painted ornaments, are manufactured. Over 60% of the total production of porcelain is exported, white porcelain to Yugoslavia, Austria and Italy, and decorated porcelain to Great Britain, the United States, France and the Netherlands. — Czechoslovak porcelain competes successfully on the world markets with German porcelain. Even after the World War some 20% of England's total imports of porcelain came from Bohemia.

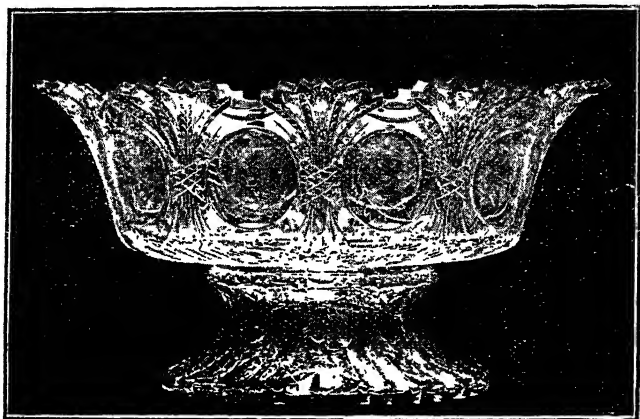
The graphic art industry is one of the most progressive branches of industrial art in Czechoslovakia. The art of printing has a great tradition in this country owing to the stimulus and co-operation given to it by the foremost Bohemian artists. Modern Czech books, prints and placards have attained the highest European level and have won prizes at exhibitions in Paris, London and Leipzig. In 1925 there appeared also an original Czech script. An equally high degree of development is shown by Czech bookbinding which includes the most



*Goblet presented to the City of Hamburg.
(Made at the Glassmaking School at Bor.)*

difficult modes of artistic execution and in purity of taste and excellence of arrangement satisfies the highest demands. It suffices to mention that in 1914 a Czech binding gained a *grand prix* at the International Exhibition of Graphic Art at Leipzig.

Textiles are manufactured in Czechoslovakia in all the characteristic branches of this industry, including gobelins and carpets, and the Czechoslovak interior shown at the Exhibition in Paris in 1925 and arranged by the Prague School of Industrial Art, achieved the highest recognition in these two branches of manufacture. Likewise



*Jardinière (Prof. Kysela, M. Janák, architect,
and Prof. Drahoňovský).*

lacemaking, which has its old, famous centres in the Bohemian mountains, has attained, in its modern revival, the highest standards in this branch of textile art. (This is mainly owing to the work of the Czechoslovak State Institute for Domestic Industry.) Also the industries producing furniture fabrics and prints are reaching a very successful stage of development. Particular interest is manifested abroad in the manufacture of jute carpets which are exported in large quantities to the East, Great Britain and France.

In the art wood industry the chief position is held by furniture. The excellent material for this branch provided by the richly endowed country of Czechoslovakia and the sound workmanship which has so successfully stood the test of foreign inspection make it possible for the growing demands of house-furnishing throughout the world

to be fulfilled, as is indicated by the exports. In its modern development the furniture trade in Czechoslovakia is abandoning its tendencies towards luxury and is aiming at strict simplicity on a serious artistic basis. Also the industry supplying small art objects of wood, especially toymaking which is supported by an old-established cottage industry, is growing into an important branch of industrial activity and is steadily gaining more and more noteworthy attention in foreign countries.

Czechoslovak folk-art has preserved its fresh and vivid character, particularly in the eastern parts of the Republic (Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia). The old handicraft traditions in Slovakia, supported by inexhaustible sources of popular fantasy and a rare sense for colour, demonstrate the creative capacity of the people especially in embroidery work, woodcarving and art pottery. The work of the Slovak embroideresses and lacemakers has found appreciation as far afield as in America, and the products of the Slovak village art potters are an essential part of all ethnographical museums. These branches are not dying out; their new productions bear all the marks of the creative genius of the people. The organization of these handicrafts is successfully concentrated in the Dětva Society at Bratislava in Slovakia. Carpathian Ruthenia likewise has its share in folk industry and is celebrated particularly for its primitive flax, hemp and woollen fabrics, its extraordinarily colourful rugs and counterpanes, its domestic pottery, toys and carvings of wooden articles of a religious and domestic character.

The industrial art school system in Czechoslovakia is represented by the School of Industrial Art at Prague, its central institution, the school of Art Handicrafts at Brno (Brunn) and a large number of all kinds of technical schools (glassmaking, woodworking, ceramics, stonecutting, lacemaking, etc.), and also by a State School for Domestic Industry attached to the Ministry of Education which organizes Czechoslovak folk-art. The organization of industrial art is served by the Association of Czechoslovak Work in Prague with its branches in the chief towns of Czechoslovakia.

CZECHOSLOVAK MUSIC OF TO-DAY

Czech music was longer and more deeply engaged than was the case in other nations in the service of the romantic national ideal. The principal motives of musical creation in the 19th century, which began and reached its climax in Frederick Smetana (1824-1884), were the glorious past of the country, its idealised national life, and the hopes for a better future. His spiritual world, rhythm, melody, and musical architectonics, takes its rise from these romantic elements, which continue to influence the succeeding generation, though not to the same degree. With Antonín Dvořák (1841-1904), the younger contemporary and in many respects the pupil of Smetana, the form used returns to more classical lines, freedom of expression is found more in harmony and instrumentation, and a new element appears in the influence of religion on the soul of a believer, expressed most clearly in the chamber music and the oratorios. Smetana's second greatest contemporary, Zdenko Fibich (1850-1900), adds still further tones to the basis of modern Czech music. Influenced in the beginning by Schumann, he turned in his best years to the glorification of the antique tragic form, for which, in spite of the example of Wagner, he found his own style and melodic expression, and later, the first in Czech music, made the subjective erotic element the central basis of his lyrical form. The overwhelmingly subjective character of Fibich's principal works is of profit to the succeeding generation, whose leaders, J. B. Foerster, Vítězslav Novák, and Josef Suk, develop rapidly from the narrow limits of national romanticism to a period of new problems both in content and technique. Beginning with Foerster, and completed by Novák and Suk, Czechoslovak music at the beginning of the 20th century takes its stand consciously and confidently on the side of modern European art. It has grown from roots of national tradition, unaffected in its healthy kernel of national rhythm and melody, and now keeps pace with the development of the cultured western nations, encourages variety of artistic individuality, and, without making radical experiments, keeps in view the achievement of a definite object.

The connection with tradition is clearest a strongest in the works of Josef B. Foerster (b. 1859). He comes of a family which has been musical for generations, and has also some literary talent. The profession of his wife, as a singer, led him in 1893 to Hamburg and Vienna, where he remained until 1918, working both as composer and as musical critic. Since 1920 he has been professor for Composition at the Conservatorium in Prague. In form and technique his works form the connection between the older and the younger generation. His work is altogether spiritual, infused with the evidence of a delicate lyrical and religious disposition. In the realm of opera his first work ("Eva"),

outlines character and setting not by means of any folklorist element in rhythm or melody, but by psychological truth, depth, and highly perceptive description. His numerous choral works are also of first-rate importance, and inaugurate, by their style and mode of expression, a new epoch in Czechoslovak choral singing. They express religious, lyrical, tragic, and national motives. He has written 5 operas, of which, in addition to "Eva" (1897), mentioned above, the last, "Srdce" (The Heart) (1922), enjoys much popularity on account of its lyrical optimism, together with 4 symphonies, and a large number of other chamber music and choral



Bedřich Smetana.



Antonín Dvořák.

pieces, works for the piano, songs, and some symphonic poems and suites.

Another world is opened up in the art of Vítězslav Novák (b. 1870). At first, it is true, he shows signs of youthful romanticism, and is musically dependent upon Brahms and Dvořák, but his personality develops rapidly in the direction of stronger passions, and the masculine expression of subjective lyricism. Avoiding a complete break with tradition, he seeks and finds new problems, harmonies, and forms, especially in the sphere of architectonics and construction. For a time he was strongly under the influence of Slovak folk music, which gives his music an exotic racial character. At this time were produced the "Slovak Suite", the symphonic poem "In the Tatras", and some works for piano and chamber music. He soon turned, however, to the perfection of the modern lyrical form, which discloses his own inner personality. His relation with nature, women, and the world gained new expression,

more refined and complicated in conception and harmony, which sometimes rises to an impressive height of realism. In this period he composed his numerous songs and choral works, the symphonic poems "Desire Eternal" and "Toman", a serenade, the "Godiva" overture, and his masterpieces, the fantasy for choir and Orchestra, "The Storm", and the symphonic fresco, "Pan", in five parts. The last period of his creative activity includes, up to the present, 4 important operas, of which lyric and humorous fairylike atmosphere forms the last part, and also works for the piano and songs for children in a markedly simplified form of expression and style. As a pupil of the Prague Conservatorium Novák's work has been done in Prague, where, by means of his strong personality, and pedagogic capabilities, he at once attracted a considerable number of pupils. Since 1919 he has been Professor for Composition at the State Conservatorium.

For some time Josef Suk (b. 1874), his younger fellow student, kept pace with Novák in development. Life, however, led his individuality on to quite different lines. At first he devoted himself to chamber music, as second violin in the famous "Bohemian String Quartet". As a composer he was at first more influenced by Dvořák than Novák, but his first works (a symphony and an overture) already show evidence of personal perception, new timbre and wealth of rhythm. A happy married life is reflected in the rich piano and chamber music of his first period, whose conclusion (Fantasy for violin and orchestra) shows already a certain bizarre quality and looseness, which, after the death of his wife and of his revered master and father-in-law Antonín Dvořák, became characteristic of his creative works and impress upon his greatest and most important works—the effect is emphasised in the symphony "Asrael", the second string quartet, and the symphony "A Summer Fairy Tale"—the stamp of tragic experience. His melodic line is freed from the bondage to periodicity, his rhythm and thematic construction become more complicated and expressive, and his harmony purges itself of tonality. He possesses complete mastery of his means of expression, in particular of instrumentation, and in his latest symphonic work, "Maturity", attains a philosophic compromise with life and the climax of his creative work. A number of intimate piano pieces form the lyrical conquest of his experience, and opens up new paths for modern Czech pianoforte style. Since 1922 Suk, in common with Foerster and Novák, has been Professor at the Prague Conservatorium.

When the most important works of Novák and Suk aroused the younger generation, a certain connection was felt between these composers and the German and French moderns (Strauss, Debussy), but twenty years ago it was already clear, and to-day is certain, that Czech music and its leaders had found and adhered to their own paths and methods of expression. The interest in modern lyricism and in the

subjective relation of mankind to the world was also the determining factor in the content and style of the first works of Novák's pupils. He was able to give them a very strict technical equipment, and at the same time allowed their individuality free play. This may be observed in the most talented members of his school. Ladislav Vycpálek (b. 1883), emerges somewhat late from the circle of ideas of his master and the influence of French Impressionism into complete independence of style, which in strictness of theme and polyphony reveals a world which is unique even in Czech music. He has, it is true, not composed



J. B. Foerster.



V. Novák.

much up to the present, but his chamber music, songs, and choruses show the deep earnestness and religious approach of an artist who can seek and find the highest in music. In the "Cantata of the Last Things of Mankind" he has attained the most mature expression of his will and his view of life. For some time the brilliant pianist Václav Štěpán (b. 1889), stood in a very similar position, but his chamber music, choruses, and songs now form the strongest contrast with Vycpálek. Štěpán is an innovator of great and spiritual wealth, and an exponent of architectonics. His music is of a joyous sensual timbre, and rich rhythmic and dynamic form. A more naive type among Novák's pupils is represented by Jaroslav Novotný (1886—1918), who lost his life prematurely in the war, and expressed a healthy and almost childish lyricism in numerous songs and choruses with a mildly impressionistic approach. The first rich compositions of Boleslav Vomáčka (1887) also betray the influence of Novák. His style was at

first perhaps almost more complicated than that of his master, and somewhat resembled that of the Schonberg school (Piano sonatas and small pieces for piano). Afterwards, however, he sought closer contact with his time, and has adopted a greatly simplified and unified style, with which he has been successful in the song cycle "1914", and in several choruses. The younger talented members of Novák's school, Jaroslav Vogel (1894), a gifted conductor and composer of operas, Jaroslav Tomášek (1896), a distinguished lyrical writer, Vladimír Polívka (1896), a capable pianist and composer for the orchestra, Miroslav Krejčí (1891) the author of some choral, chamber music, and orchestral works, with a pronounced tendency to humour, Franz Škvor, Anton Bednář, and others, are all more or less growing out of the influence of their master, and give marked proof of variously differentiated talents. Another pupil of Novák's, Alois Haba (1893), however, adheres only loosely to this group. He completed his studies with Franz Schrecker, but without coming under his influence. A number of chamber music works still betray traces of this double schooling, but lately Haba has devoted himself to theoretical work in the sphere of quarter tones and acoustics, and to composition on the basis of this theory, with impressive consistency, in which lately his younger brother Karel Haba has followed him. The representative of radical a-tonality in linear, absolute music Ernst Křenek (b. 1900), is also of Czech origin and a pupil of Schreker. His thoroughly internationalist tendencies lie, however, quite outside the sphere of Czech music, with which he is united only by the racial delight in the performance of music. Emil Axman (1887), also a pupil of Novák, has lately developed quite independently in a diametrically opposite direction. Axman to-day is one of the most fruitful and impulsive composers of chamber and orchestral music, whose works, full of racial directness and passion, seem almost to be shaken out of his sleeves. To the school of Novák and Foerster belongs also K. B. Jiráček (1891), who is, in spite of his youth, already a technically complete and mature composer, with a conscious sense of formal symmetry and tasteful contrasts. He has written several orchestral works, including a refreshing overture, and three symphonies, some chamber music pieces, among them a particularly characteristic string quartet, several sonatas, sustained by a spirit of energy, and a number of notable lyrical song cycles. The variety of types evolved by the Novák school is well exemplified by Jaromír Weinberger (1896), who was at first, as an infant prodigy, a pupil of Jaroslav Křička, and later, taught by Novák, Reger, and the French Impressionists, developed into an internationally orientated type, with complete and apt mastery over the technical and instrumental elements of creation.

Foerster's pupils have only lately begun to form a group, since he only

began to influence the younger generation directly after the revolution. The eldest is Jan Zelinka (1893), a serious and creative lyricist, whose chamber music does indeed betray a warm and sensitive heart, but whose polyphony and architecture are not yet sufficiently disciplined, Emil Němeček (1902), who, at the age of 17, had already written a technically striking opera, but only later, in chamber music and songs, became concerned with a more spiritual and balanced form of expression. E. F. Burian (1905) is a young but daring musician, very versatile and radical in theory, but moderate in musical expression. He has written one short opera, a ballet, and some smaller works, of fresh talent scrupulously under control, and a notable tendency to dance music and Jazz. More serious and richer musically is the development of the brilliant improviser, J. Ježek, though he also does not eschew a fancy for modern dance rhythms. The other composers of this group have so far been less prominent, viz. V. Kalík, at his best in his choral works, E. Bláha-Mikeš, Fr. Hybler, V. Taraba, and J. Mařínek.

After these youths we must now return, and recollect some composers who will not fit into pigeon-holes. First comes Rudolf Karel (b. 1881), the last direct pupil of Anton Dvořák, when the latter was professor of the Prague Conservatorium. His works composed before the beginning of the war, mostly orchestral and chamber music, show a pronounced sense of absolute love of music as an art, without being directly under the influence of Dvořák either in invention or the treatment of his themes. One is rather reminded of Brahms or of Reger, but Karel's invention is quite original and autochthonous, and his polyphony, with a pronounced bias towards the Variations form, emphasises the specifically musical and the superabundant, and possesses a certain massiveness of tone. His best works are a string quartet, a violin and piano sonata, variations for the piano, and the symphonic poems "Ideals", and "The Daemon", together with the Cantata, "Resurrection". Jaroslav Křička (1882) was, during his years of pupillage, in a very similar position, a straggler of the Dvořák school, who later attached himself to the Novák school. He spent some time in Russia, where he was till 1909 Professor of music in Jekaterinoslav. Since that time he has lived in Prague, as conductor and teacher of composition. In his music we can detect at times a delicate Russian nuance, but always a pronounced sense of the clear treatment of a theme and clean instrumental phrase and tone. He possesses a characteristically Slav vein, in which overabundant merriment passes easily into lyrical melancholy. He displays a special talent for scenes from child life and fairy tales, in which field he has done his most original work. (Overtures; "The Blue Bird", "Three Fables", "Spring", and "The Child".) He has written many choral works, several piano and song cycles, an opera, the "Adventus" overture, and a cantata, "The Search". In this connection Ota-

kar Sin must also be mentioned, whose serious works approach the Novák school in conception and modernity of harmony.

Lately Josef Suk's influence upon the younger generation has been more noticeable. Among his pupils a certain sensation has been lately caused by Bohuslav Martinů (1890), who has no intention of going the usual road, and seeks his proper orientation in the chaos of modern western tendencies. His beginnings were somewhat tame and unadventurous. He was at first attracted by French Impressionism, and later found his salvation in Stravinský. From this time comes his stimulating, but not yet quite independent experiment for the orchestra, "Half-time". His latest works, especially in the sphere of the ballet and chamber music, show, however, that he does not take the principle of absolute music and linear treatment of themes too schematically, but has healthy musical blood, and a pronounced rhythmic talent, coupled with the effort for clear and plastic construction. Solid proof of talent in the sphere of the symphony and chamber music has also been given by other graduates of the Prague school of composition, especially by the pupils of Suk. These are, Fr. Pícha, V. Štědroň, Fr. Modr, Jaroslav Rícký, V. Hlobil, and Isa Krejčí, the latter with a specially developed feeling for the unbroken colours of folk music.

The best tradition of Fibich is incorporated to-day in his pupil, Otakar Ostrčil (b. 1879). He was formerly a Middle School professor, conductor of an amateur orchestra, and afterwards stage manager of a suburban theatre. After the death in 1920 of the brilliant director of opera at the Prague National Theatre, Karel Kovařovic, he took his place, which he has since occupied with evidence of serious and progressive tendencies. His first opera still bears traces of the influence of Wagner and Fibich, but the little comic opera, "The Bud", shows a new vision, fresh and delicate lyrical invention, and naturalness of declamation. His symphonic style remained longer under the influence of Mahler, but we find in his best works, (Suite for orchestra, and Impromptu, "Summer"), a personal and nationally Czech note, which finds expression in the robust rhythm and natural instrumentation. His polyphony becomes ever more free, but also more complicated, so that the harmonic associations lead him already towards atonality. In this respect, of polyphonic form, he is closely approached by Otakar Zich (1879). Originally a mathematician, he devoted himself to the collection and publication of Czech folk-songs, and is now professor of Aesthetics at the Prague University. In addition to choral works, he has so far written three operas, among which "Guilt", realistic and psychological of text, is interesting by reason of its motive and its declamatory treatment.

All these artists have the scene of their activities in Prague, the centre of Czechoslovak musical life. There are here, however, also other com-

posers, especially popular and eclectically talented members of the older generation. Of these at least some deserve mention. The first is Karel Weis (b. 1862), a pupil of Dvořák and Fibich, whose operas and operettas ("The Twins", "The Polish Jew", "The Examiner") were at one time very popular, and who has also done great service in the collection of folk-songs. Rudolf Zamrzla (b. 1869), conductor of the orchestra at the Prague National Theatre, whose operas and symphonic poems resemble Richard Strauss in style, and Josef Procházka, a tasteful composer of chamber music, are the two next,



Joseph Suk



Leoš Janáček

followed by Oskar Nedbal (1874), member and leader of the Czech String Quartet of Prague, who afterwards transferred his activities as concert leader to Vienna, and is now director of the Slovak National Theatre in Bratislava. He is a composer in the style of the post-Dvořák generation, and devoted himself at first to chamber and orchestral music, but afterwards had a notable success with the ballet "Lazy John", and some other ballets and operettas. Karel Moor (1873) also shows earnest beginnings in his operas, but he also could not maintain this line, and turned to operettas. Among the young eclectics we must mention the famous violin virtuoso, Jan Kubelík (1880), who, in his four violin concertos and smaller pieces offers us something more than mere empty virtuosity, and also Antonín Provozník, who has written successful drawing room pieces and operettas, and lately, in the dance poem "Akaga", has been searching for newer and more serious paths.

The more intensive musical life of Czechoslovakia has lately made it possible that the provincial towns should also enshrine some talent for

composition. In Pilsen there is a blind composer of opera, Stanislav Suda, and the choirmaster and composer Th. Kössel, and in Budějovice (Budweis) a serious member of the Novák school, Otakar Jeremiáš (b. 1892), who conducts a school of music there, and whose own music is of immediate and youthful freshness, and emphasises conscious traditional conventions and forms without renouncing modern harmony. He has written some orchestral works, songs and choral works, including the successful "Zborov", and has just completed an opera, "The Brothers Karamazow". His brother, Jaroslav Jeremiáš (1889-1919), was a strong personality, and was also a pupil of Novák. but his great talent and serious efforts were unfortunately brought to an end by an early death. His best work, which has not yet received quite sufficient recognition, is the oratorio, "Jan Hus".

The development of the political situation has brought with it a more intensive musical life, since the revolution, in Moravia, and especially in Brno (Brünn). It is principally owing to the new Director of Opera at the National Theatre in Brno, František Neumann (1874), that this theatre is one of lively and notable activity. Neumann himself is not merely an experienced manager of conscious purpose (he is a pupil of the Leipzig Conservatorium, and was for a time connected with the opera in Frankfurt), but also a successful composer. For the rest, the musical life of Brno is concentrated around the Brno Conservatorium, which was conducted for some considerable time by Leoš Janáček (1854-1928). For decades he worked almost unnoticed, owing to his theories which were at that time laughed at, but suddenly in 1916 the unparalleled success of his opera, "Jenufa", in Prague, brought him recognition and admiration, and opened the gates of the world to his music. In his beginnings may be found some resemblance to Dvořák, and his symphonic folk dances have much in common with the "Slav Dances". With passionate insistence and urged on by devouring interest he devoted himself during his whole life to Moravian and Slovak folk-songs. He lay alertly in wait for the movements of the national soul, noted thousands upon thousands of variations of folk-songs and dances, and composed a number of choral works in a modern, realistic style, and an unconventional and expressive treatment of themes. This work with his first three operas, received for years recognition from nobody, or from a very small circle, *Jenufa*, a text showing the characteristic Slav love of truth, was composed in 1902, and after the first performance in Brno it fell into oblivion. Only when it was presented by Karel Kovařovic at the National Theatre in Prague did the 62 year old author receive justice. The riddle of its effectiveness lies in the truth of the mode of expression, in the natural intonation of the sung recitative, in its wealth of rhythm, and in the originality of the melodic elements, which spring from the soul of the language. His orchestra takes up these ele-

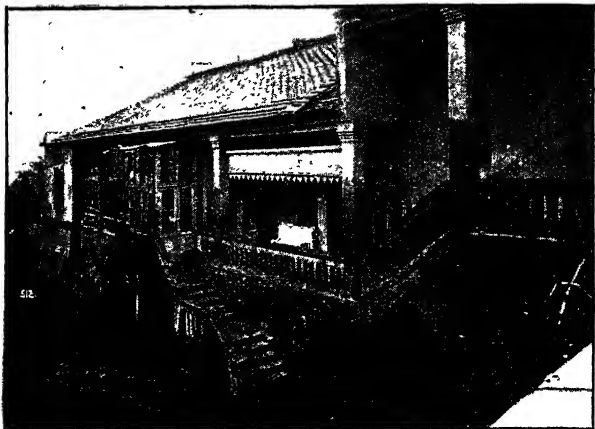
ments, and eliminates every superfluous polyphony. The method is reminiscent of Mussorgski, but has its own musical content. With the opera "Káťa Kabanova" his style becomes even more admirable, and the lyric cycle "Diary of One who is Missing", is one of his most unique works. Janáček's productivity, and the freshness of his impulsive, rhythmically versatile invention has not declined during the last ten years. He has written a number of chamber music works, among them an impressive violin sonata, a deeply passionate string quartet, a wind sextet, "Youth", full of humour, fresh invention, and of joyous timbre, a philosophic humorous animal opera "The Sly Fox", a further opera "The Makropulos Affair", a piano concerto, a miniature symphony, and the almost paganly joyful and original "Glagolitic Mass", as well as smaller works. He was a physical and spiritual phenomenon of a unique kind.

Around Janáček were grouped a few composers, who approached him more or less closely. First of all his pupil Oswald Chlubná (1893), who has written some orchestral works and two operas, then Jan Kunc (1883), whose style of composition reflects the styles of both his teachers, Janáček and Novák, Vilém Petrželka (1889), who was also a pupil of both these masters, and has composed songs, choral works, and some chamber music and orchestral works, and Jaroslav Kvapil (b. 1892), who was taught by Max Reger, and has had especial success with chamber music and orchestral works, and is a capable conductor in Brno. All these composers are also professors of the Conservatorium at Brno. In addition some younger members now begin to appear, among them the talented opera composer Vilém Ambros, who is a conductor in Prostějov. In Olomouc Karel Nedbal (1888) is working as director of opera and composer in the school of Novák, and in Domažlice is the popular song composer, Jindřich Jindřich (1876).

Slovak art has not hitherto quite kept pace with modern development. Its strength and originality lies in folk music. Among the older generation there is still living Smetana's contemporary Jan Levoslav Bella (b. 1843), who has been most successful with church music, and also composed transcriptions of Slovak folk songs, many choral works, and a symphonic poem in the romantic style, "Fate and the Ideal". Schneider-Trnavský has harmonised Slovak folk songs, and composed vocal, chamber, and orchestral music. He is a pupil of the Prague Conservatorium, and may rank as the most modern among Slovak composers. To the romantic school belong also William Figuš-Bystrý (1875), Milan Lichard, and Francis Kafenda. Dvořák's pupil, Emanuel Maršík, is also living in Bratislava, and his operas and symphonic poems bear a civilised and eclectic character.

With these we come to the end of our survey, even though it is not yet exhaustive. The names are numerous, but not all have been given.

Schools and groups cross and influence one another, and any analysis would have to issue in a synthesis which would be too simple to be anything but incomplete and subjective. The present day is so versatile and rich in individuality, that no common direction or tendency can be detected. The principal groups of serious composers around Janáček, Foerster, Novák, and Suk, form the crystallisation points for creative activity. As everywhere, in Czechoslovakia opera style has arrived at a parting of the ways. Distinguished work is being done in choral composition, important work in chamber music and song writing, and remarkable symphonies are being produced. The main lines keep pace with Europe, without attempting to depart from the traditional line with too radical experiments. The natural musical talent and the power of the leading personalities is a guarantee of further healthy development.



"Bertramka", the villa at Smíchov where Mozart composed his "Don Juan".

AN OUTLINE OF CZECH LITERATURE

Czech literature is the oldest of the Slavonic literatures. It does not begin indeed with the heroic poems known as the Manuscripts of Králové Dvůr and Zelená Hora which a century ago became known to the whole of Europe but later were proved to be literary forgeries by Václav Hanka; but its beginnings date back to the introduction of Christianity



The Prebisch Gate in the Lušické Mountains.

during the second half of the 9th century in the Great Moravian Empire when the Slavonic "Apostles", SS. Cyril and Methodius, invented the Slavonic alphabet, founded the Old Slavonic literary language, and made the first Slavonic translations of the Holy Scriptures. The development of this literature took place outside the boundaries of Czech territory, but the nation, brought under the influence of Rome and consequently of Western civilization, produced at the beginning of the 12th century a celebrated Latin chronicler Cosmas; while two centuries later there appeared Czech religious poets imbued with national consciousness, and the chronicler Dalimil. The foundation of Prague University by Charles IV in the middle of the 14th century linked the Czech people still more closely with the cultural life of Western Europe, but fifty years later the nation entered upon the separate path of the Bohemian Reformation. Tomáš Štítivý was the first Czech to write in his native language on religious problems; Jan Hus

(John Huss) who was burned at the stake at Constance in 1415, was the founder of a movement which reached the mass of the nation and led to a spread of education which until then had been confined to the upper classes. Hus is one of the chief figures in Czech literature, which after his death concerned itself mainly with religious and moral interests of every-day life. With a few exceptions there was no poetry in praise of the joys of existence, but on the other hand there were great thinkers such as Petr Chelčický, or the chief figure in the earlier period of the Unity of Bohemian Brethren, Jan Blahoslav. The Czech Humanists, historians and students of natural history, were strongly influenced by this prevailing tendency; mention may be made of the legal writer V. Kornel ze Všehrd and of the greatest of the Latinists, Bohuslav Hasištejnský of Lobkovice, who was a zealous Catholic even in his poems. During the whole of the period prior to the battle of White Mountain (1620) there was not a single great poet, even in the reign of the art-loving Emperor Rudolph II, but there were men of strong individuality and lofty character.

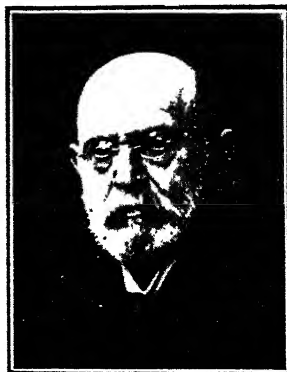
The victory of the Counter-Reformation at White Mountain caused a great decline in Czech literature; in company with other non-Catholics, Jan Amos Komenský (Comenius) went into exile where he wrote his celebrated books on education and on peace and harmony among mankind. At home a Czech Jesuit, Bohuslav Balbín, collected historical materials and wrote a passionate defense of the Czech language which was steadily falling into disuse in social and public life. Towards the end of the 18th century, however, the Czech national consciousness began to revive. The combination of factors underlying this revival is very complicated; one of the main causes was the Western European cult of reason which broke down ancient prejudices. It was largely the work of historians and philologists who investigated the earlier cultural life of the nation, but wrote in Latin and German and not in Czech. The greatest of these scholars in the Age of Enlightenment was the founder of Slavonic studies, Josef Dobrovský. The following generation, in the Age of Romanticism, produced the first works written in modern Czech, its chief representative being Josef Jungmann, the compiler of a famous dictionary and an excellent translator of Western European romantic literature. The next important Czech writer was the author of "Dějiny národa českého" (History of the Czech People), František Palacký, who formulated the first Czech political programme and after 1848, in company with his son-in-law Fr. L. Rieger, became the political leader of the Czech nation. The greatest Slavonic philologist after Dobrovský was the Slovak, Pavel Josef Šafařík, who wrote "Slovanské starožitnosti" (Slavonic Antiquities). Another Slovak, Jan Kollár,

was the poet of Slavonic reciprocity. The most celebrated of Czech journalists, Karel Havlíček, who collaborated with Palacký and suffered persecution from the Austrian Government, wrote popular verses in which he expressed his uncompromising national ideas.

Modern Czech poetry had its beginnings at the end of the 18th century and incorporated foreign tendencies, particularly those of the Slavonic literatures. It was invigorated by Romanticism and the cult of folk poetry and great enthusiasm was shown in the collecting of popular ballads and legends. The "Ohlasy" (Echoes) of Fr. Lad.



Božena Němcová.



Alois Jirásek.

Čelakovský were based on the Russian national songs, whilst Karel Jaromír Erben wrote "Kytice" (The Bouquet). The historical novels of Sir Walter Scott influenced the beginnings of modern Czech prose fiction. Characters taken from the Czech countryside were portrayed by the authoress Božena Němcová who boldly opened up new paths in her novel "Babička" (Grandmother). Many theatrical plays by Josef K. Tyl, who gave a great impetus to the development of the Czech theatre, are very popular on account of their Czech spirit and universal appeal; indeed the popularity of these pieces is still growing. All the above-mentioned writers may be regarded as Czech classical authors. Young Slovak Protestant writers headed by L. Štúr founded the Slovak literary language (an unsuccessful attempt had previously been made by the Catholic priest Ant. Bernolák); the chief poet in this period of Slovak literature was Andrej Sládkovič.

Regarding literature as a means to fortify the people in its struggle towards better conditions of life, these early writers placed all their faith in national traditions and viewed with distrust the contemporary currents of Western European thought. Hence in the thirties of last century the author of the poem "Máj" (May), Karel Hynek Mácha, a master of musical verse and the creator of magnificent images, the first Czech writer to express the torment of the modern soul under the influence of intellectual nihilism, was sharply opposed by his literary colleagues. When however at the end of the reactionary



Jaroslav Vrchlický.



Hviezdoslav.

fifties the group of young writers connected with the almanach "Máj" came to prominence, the merits of Mácha, who had died prematurely, were adequately appreciated. For this generation set itself the task of modernizing Czech life and literature; after cosmopolitan beginnings their work showed a strong tendency towards a new kind of nationalism that was not satisfied with sentimental words and the thoughtless cult of tradition. The literary leader of this generation was Jan Neruda, a poet with simple diction but deep feeling; sad and lonely, he was the mystically inspired singer of the national destiny; he wrote tales of old Prague which are full of local colour. His friend, Vítězslav Hálek, described village life, whilst Karolina Světlá wrote novels on the Czech national revival in Prague and on the countryside. Fantasy combined with realism is the distinguishing feature of the short stories of Jakub Arbes, the majority of which deal with Prague. The generation of the sixties thus established the Czech novel and improved the drama which commenced to develop rapidly

after the Czech theatre in Prague was placed on an independent footing.

An all-round progress was effected in the seventies by the literary group connected with the periodical "Lumír". The new endeavours were in constant conflict with old influences and traditions, but they were stimulated by the study of foreign literatures, particularly French and Russian, whilst in the nineties attention began to be paid to the literature of the countries of Northern Europe. In 1883 the University of Prague was divided into a German and a Czech section, and Czech learning was furthered in considerable measure by the merits of Prof.



Otakar Březina.



Karel Čapek.

T. G. Masaryk. The same year saw the opening of the new National Theatre in Prague. After long years of painful efforts the Czech Academy was finally established with an independent section for art.

Translator of an enormous number of modern poetical masterpieces, an original poet, dramatist and prose-writer, Jaroslav Vrchlický was at home in all the literatures of the world; a spirit of the Renaissance, a lover of sunny, joyful existence, he produced splendid Parnassian verse which later became the subject of sharp, literary polemics; finally, however, he was recognized as a true poet of unusual fertility. A similar feeling for poetical beauty and mysticism is evident in Julius Zeyer who was conversant with the old Romance literatures; Zeyer likewise wrote poems, mainly epics, prose and dramas. The favourite writer, however, was Svatopluk Čech who composed epics academic in form but giving expression to the national troubles of his people; for many years his colourful, sonorous and rather rhetorical verse was widely read and had a powerful effect on Czech

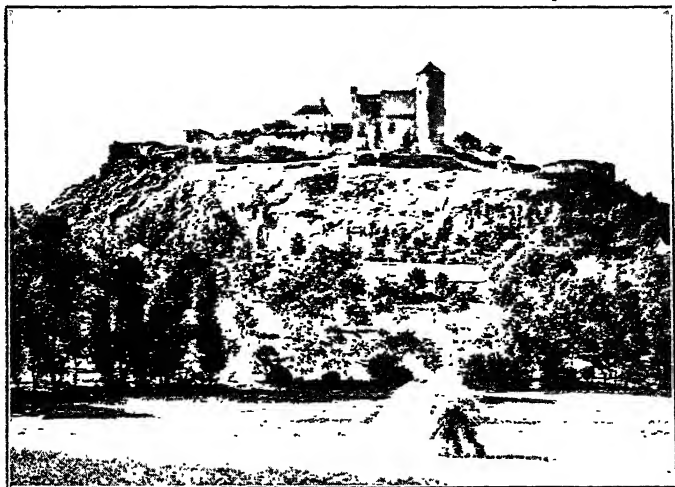
life. A contemporary of J. Vrchlický, the greatest lyric poet of that generation was J. V. Sládek who during his lifetime was valued mostly for his translations of Shakespeare; the form of his original work is compact and simple, but its feeling is unusually deep; his greatness was recognized only after his death. The simple, religious soul of the Slovak peasant and the influence of the process of Magyarization were fully described by the Slovak poet Hviezdoslav.

The trend from romanticism to realism and the description of everyday reality is discernible in prose fiction and the drama alike. Alois Jirásek, who is still living and loved and admired by the whole country and who during the War became the mouthpiece of Czech ideals, has written powerful historical novels and dramas on the past life of the Czech nation, particularly on the Hussite period, the years after the defeat at the battle of White Mountain, and the national rebirth; and together with Svatopluk Čech, contributed most to the inspiration of the nation in its struggle for independence. His friend, Zikmund Winter, portrayed in detail the period prior to the battle of White Mountain. Life in the smaller Czech towns is described by A. V. Šmilovský and that of the Slovak gentlefolk by Hviezdoslav's friend, Svetozár Hurban Vajanský who was strongly influenced by the Russian realists. In the drama a return was made to the life of the common people in the past and present by the forerunners of modern realism, Fr. A. Šubert and Lad. Stroupežnický, both of whom were prominent figures during the first years of the National Theatre.

As in all the literatures of Europe, the nineties brought new currents into Czech literature. T. G. Masaryk accomplished a great deal towards the introduction of modern principles of literary criticism, whilst F. X. Šalda made his name as a highly-talented essayist and art critic with a European horizon. Czech modernism was succeeded by a school of decadents who in the field of the novel, the drama and poetry produced some works of rare originality and high artistic merit. New tendencies appeared also in the village novel; whilst K. V. Raš and the Moravian brothers Mrštík showed the disintegrating influence of town life on that of the village, other authors, such as Jos. Holeček, J. Herben, Tereza Nováková and J. Š. Baar endeavour to penetrate to the depths of the religious consciousness of the Czech farmer and to express his moral ideas. The life of the lower middle classes of Prague is portrayed with humour by Ignát Herrmann; Prague is also the scene of numerous social novels dealing with the conditions created at the end of the 19th century. The same subjects were chosen by Jaroslav Hilbert in his dramatic works, by the stylist Růžena Svobodová who before the War exerted the greatest influence on the writing of fine prose,

and by F. X. Svoboda in his lyrical novels and dramas. But the greatest of modern Czech novelists was K. M. Čapek-Chod who combined a wonderfully clear psychological insight into everyday life with an almost brutal naturalism and extreme fantasy.

Amongst the poets the mood of the age is expressed most fully in the verse, sometimes bitterly ironical and at other times sharply aggressive, of J. S. Machar who passed from an uncompromising condemnation of Czech Philistinism and Czech political life before the



Kunětická Hora near Pardubice.

War to a description of the development of world history. One of the most original figures amongst Czech poets is Petr Bezruč who in one collection of poems described the desperate condition of the Czech inhabitants of Silesia who languished under the pressure of foreign capitalists. Apparently born out of his time, Otokar Březina deals in his wonderful poems with the problems of life and death and the cosmic mysteries; he is not only a musician in verse but a sage who has overcome loneliness with a religious faith in the value of work and the meaning of pain; believing in the brotherhood and unity of the whole of creation, he hymns the realization of the eternal law of the Universe. The poetry of Ant. Sova is infused with dreams of a new world arising on the ruins of the old order and

emancipating mankind from bodily and mental slavery. He is a poet of extraordinary sensuousness, and in his numerous and varied books of prose and poetry he depicts the moral, national and social changes that have taken place in the life of his nation. Jiří Karásek and Karel Hlaváček are poets of the former upper classes; St. K. Neumann is a revolutionary poet of proletarian ideals and has a pantheistic love of nature; Karel Toman in a lyrical fragment has seized the whole drama of life redeemed by a return to his native soil; Otokar Theer in strongly constructed verse has manifested his proud individualism; in his books of verse as well as in the novel and the drama Fráňa Šrámek is essentially a lyrical poet of youthful sensuousness.

The World War formed a dividing line in Czech literary development; the soul-stirring experiences of the War years naturally left their mark on the literary work of the period despite the watchful Austrian censorship. But in 1917 prior to the opening of the Vienna Parliament the Czech writers sent a bold manifesto to the Deputies and thus inaugurated a definitely revolutionary policy which finally led to the emancipation of the nation on October 28th, 1918. At the head of the Czech writers were Alois Jirásek and the poet and dramatist Jaroslav Kvapil, but the spokesman of the oppressed Czechs was Viktor Dyk, a journalist and politician, who began as a decadent but developed into a poet of uncompromising nationalism. His staccato verse was an excellent medium for his satirical invective; the constant conflict between passionate feeling and the scepticism of reason is the basis also of Dyk's dramas and novels. As regards the soldier-poets who described their tragic position in the ranks of the Austrian army, mention should be made of Petr Kříčka; at the same time literary work was being produced in the foreign legions especially in Russia, and the impressions and experiences of the legionaries have since formed the basis of a special legionary literature at first in the shape of poems and later of the drama and novel. The most important of the legionary writers is the hero of Zborov, Rudolf Medek who today with Viktor Dyk is the leading representative of literary nationalism. His books, together with those of Josef Kopta whose talent was awakened by the War, are the most noteworthy productions of this school of writers. The third important literary man who took part in the Russian Anabasis, Fr. Langer, has achieved fame through his drama entitled "Periferie".

In addition to the writings inspired by the War, a number of works have been produced as a result of post-War conditions and the difficult problems connected therewith. Whilst the neo-romantic Catholic Jaroslav Durych, who belongs to the generation that attained maturity shortly before the War, remains true in his poems and novels to his

unseasonable dreams of beauty and pain, Karel Čapek, at first with his Utopian play "R.U.R." and later with his further dramas, novels and racily written travel descriptions, has built up a reputation in many foreign countries. The whole of his work is characterized by penetrating intellectual power, independence of judgment and bold inventiveness. He is equally at ease in the treatment of problems of the greatest importance as of the questions of everyday life. Under the influence of the post-War conditions a new literary life is rapidly developing also in Slovakia. The latest Czech literature reflects the influence of the proletarian art of Soviet Russia; the best of the young writers of Bolshevik tendency is the prematurely deceased Jiří Wolker who wrote fine lyric poetry, social ballads, thematic prose and dramas, whilst Josef Hora, is exclusively a lyric poet inspired by the tragic element in life. After the recession of the wave of proletarian poetry the predominating part in the most recent literature is played by the adherents of poetism, the leader of whom is Vítězslav Nezval. He possesses great spontaneity and an arresting fantasy.

THE PRESS

The first pamphlet, the humble forerunner of actual journals, appeared in 1515. At the close of the same century, the first journal made its appearance. But the Thirty Years' War arrested all intellectual activity. During the course of the last decades of the 18th century the *Pražské Noviny* (Prague News) commenced publication and in 1848 it became the official journal, a position which, under the title of *Československá Republika* (the Czechoslovak Republic), it retains to-day; and it is in its 249th year. The journals founded during the year 1848 became the soul of the national revival; these were notably the *Národní Noviny* (the National News, 1848-1850) and the *Slovan* (the Slav, 1850-1851) which made Karel (Charles) Havlíček—a journalist in the real sense of the word—known to the public. In comparison with Havlíček, whose ideas were liberal and nationalist, the activities of a considerable number of the other journalists of the year 1848, an epoch during which almost all Czech authors became journalists, have been relegated to the background, and in particular this has happened to the Radical Democrat journalists who grouped themselves around the *Pražský Večerní List* (the Prague Evening News) founded by the writer, Karel Sabina. Havlíček remains to-day the greatest Czech journalist.

The absolutism of Bach, the Austrian Premier, succeeded for a certain period in strangling the Czech press, and the publication of political journals did not become possible again until 1860, the epoch during which constitutional life was re-established in Austria. To that epoch belong the following Liberal journals: *Čas* (the Times, 1860-1863), founded by Dr. A. Krása, the *Národní Listy* (the National News), founded in 1861 by Dr. Jules Grégr, and still appearing to-day, the *Hlas* (the Voice, 1862-1865), which was amalgamated with the preceeding paper. The National Party (Old Czechs) published the *Národ* (the Nation, 1863-1866). *Národní Pokrok* (National Progress, 1867-1886), and the German journal *Politik* (the Statesman) launched in 1862, were amalgamated in 1907 in the non-party journal, *Union*.

From 1890 to 1900 the Czech journalists kept in close contact with the new currents of European ideas and the daily press became an instrument of propaganda in popular circles. This, in consequence, gave an impetus to journalism and notably to the youthful progressionists. Among the daily papers of that time, the *Čas* (the Times), the organ of Czech realism, founded in 1886 as a weekly and converted into a daily in 1900, was the most outstanding, together with the Radical-Progressionist journal *Samostatnost* (Independence) the organ of the extremists among the opponents of Austria, founded in 1896 as a weekly, and reconstituted in 1911 as a daily. These two journals were suppressed

during the first years of the War along with a number of other opposition newspapers.

The coup d'Etat of the 28th of October, 1918 naturally marked the inauguration of fresh effort on the part of the Czechoslovak press. The number of papers appearing in Prague and in the provinces was enormously increased. Many of them appeared twice daily and their evening editions were greatly enlarged.

The Czech press founded several associations, of which "The Syndicate of the Daily Press of Czechoslovakia" and the "Federation of Czechoslovak Journalists" include all the societies of journalists. These endeavoured to bring about the creation of a College of Journalism, which is to open this year.

The press service has been organised by the Bureau of the Czechoslovak Press (Č. T. K.) which is in touch with the great news agencies, Havas, Reuter, Stefani and Wolff. The Bureau has special correspondents at Vienna, Belgrade, Berlin, Paris, Warsaw, Bucharest, Milan, etc. It employs wireless transmission and special telephonic lines. In addition to this official agency, a number of private ones have been established.

The powerful effort put forth by the press resulted in the following figures: in 1864 some 62 journals existed and in 1921, the number had increased to 1,521. Beyond the frontiers of the Czechoslovak Republic there appeared in 1921, 138 Czechoslovak journals in America and 10 in Lower Austria. In 1920 there appeared in Czechoslovakia 539 German papers, 96 Hungarian, 22 Ruthenian and Russian and 10 Polish; in 1927: 2,509 Czechoslovak, 792 German, 68 Hungarian, 30 Ruthenian and Russian, 10 Polish, and 33 newspapers and periodical in foreign languages. The number of daily papers published in Czechoslovakia is 131, of which 29 appear in Prague, 5 at Plzeň, 13 at Brno, 7 at Olomouc, 11 at Moravská Ostrava, 12 at Bratislava, and 6 at Košice.

The Czechoslovak Press at Prague.

National Democracy publishes at Prague its principal organ under the title *Národní Listy* (the National News), which has also an evening



Karel Havlíček Borovský

edition. It is a journal with ancient traditions, for it has appeared since 1851. It is supported by the most extensive daily, the *Národní Politika*, founded in 1882 formerly the organ of the Old Czechs.

The Republican Party (Agrarians) owns at Prague the *Venkov* (the Country) founded in 1905, and the *Večer* (the Evening).

The Popular Party (Czechoslovak Catholic Party) has as its central organ the *Lidové Listy* (Popular News) founded in 1921.

The Social Democrats publish as their organ in Prague the *Právo Lidu* (the Rights of the People) founded in 1891 and turned into a daily in 1897; the National Socialists own the *České Slovo* (the Czech Word), founded in 1907, the Communists the *Rudé Právo* (the Red Rights) founded in 1921, while artisans, small traders and industrialists own the *Reforma*, founded in 1918.

Among the independent journals, mention should be made of the *Národní Osvobození* (National Freedom) founded in 1924 and representing the Central Left, notably the Legionaries and the teachers, the *Tribuna*, founded in 1918 as the mouthpiece of certain industrial circles, the *Prager Presse*, founded in 1920 appears in German and is the political organ of the State, principally of its foreign policy. This is a duty which devolves also on *L'Europe Centrale*, published in French, *The Central European Observer*, published in English, and the *Centralnaja Evropa* (Central Europe), published in Russian.

Provincial Czechoslovak Journals.

In Bohemia, the historic centre of the Czech State, the daily press is concentrated almost exclusively in the capital. With the exception of Prague, the only city possessing daily papers is Plzeň (Pilsen) which has three. For the rest, the Czech towns have weekly papers organized in the main by local parties and only offering local interests.

In Moravia there are three centres for the press: Brno, Olomouc and Moravská Ostrava. Among the Brno papers, the one most outstanding by its traditions and the perfection of its service is the *Lidové Noviny*, founded in 1892. Its editor is Dr. Jar. Stránský and to it are attached not only a staff of good journalists but also a circle of excellent collaborators on intellectual, artistic and scientific questions. It has branch editorial offices in Prague and Bratislava and special correspondents in Paris, Vienna, London and elsewhere. The remainder of the Brno papers have no more than a provincial interest. This applies also to the Olomouc press where two old established dailies are in competition, the *Našinec* (the Compatriot), a Conservative Catholic organ and the *Pozor* (Attention), a Liberal organ, and also to Moravská Ostrava, which likewise owns two old dailies, the *Moravskoslezský Deník* (the Moravian-Silesian Daily), a Nationalist organ, and the *Duch Času* (the Spirit of the Times), a Socialist paper.

In Slovakia, before the War, the press was numerically weak; it

was concentrated on the one hand at Turčianský Svätý Martin, where the *Národní Noviny* (the National News) was published, and on the other hand at Budapest where the *Slovenský Deník* (the Slovak Daily) began to appear as an organ with new tendencies. Since the liberation of Slovakia the press has been concentrated at Bratislava. It is, in effect, in that city that the principal dailies of the Slovak parties appear: the *Slovenský Deník* (the Slovak Daily) founded in 1917, and the *Slovenská Politika* (the Slovak Policy), founded in 1919, both organs of the Czechoslovak Agrarian Republican parties, the *Národní Deník* (The National Daily), the organ of the National Democrats, the *Robotnické Noviny* (The Worker's News), the organ of the Social Democrats, the *Slovák*, the organ of the Slovak Catholic Popular Party, and the *Lidová Politika* (The Popular Policy), the organ of the Slovak fraction of the Czechoslovak Catholic Party, in the majority, Czechs. The importance of the ancient daily, the *Národní Noviny* (The National News) having diminished, the journal has been reconstituted as a weekly. This applies also to the *Slovenský Východ* (East Slovakia) appearing at Košice.



*The Macocha
Abyss in the Moravian Karst.*

In Carpathian Ruthenia, after the union with the Czechoslovak Republic, a certain number of weeklies appeared, belonging to the smallest political fractions: the *Karpatoruskij Věstník* (The Ruthenian Courier), the organ of the Agrarian Party, the *Svoboda* (Liberty), the organ of the small farmers party, the *Vpered* (Advance), the organ of the Social Democrat Party, the *Podkarpatské Hlasy* (The Ruthenian Voice), a Czech journal, etc. The attempt at publishing a Ruthenian journal, the *Rusín* (The Ruthenian) made in 1923 was un-

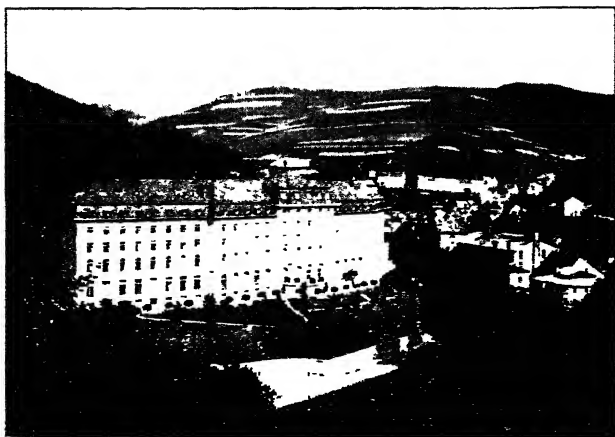
successful. Before the War there appeared in Ruthenia only a single non-political periodical, the *Nauka* (Science).

The German Press in Czechoslovakia.

The most important German journals are found at Prague. To the two excellent dailies, the *Prager Tagblatt* (The Prague Daily), founded in 1875 and possessing a good news service, particularly in economic affairs, and the *Bohemia*, founded in 1827, have of late years been added the organs of the most important German political parties. These papers are the *Sozial Demokrat*, founded in 1920, the organ of the German Social Democrat Party, the *Deutsche Landpost* (The German Country Post), founded in 1918, the organ of the German Agrarian Party, and the *Deutsche Presse*, founded in 1924, the organ of the German Christian Socialist (Catholic) Party. Among the provincial journals of the first rank, mention may be made of the Liberec journal the *Reichenberger Zeitung*, the *Vorwärts* (Advance), the organ of the German Communists also appearing in Liberec, and *Der Tag* (The Day), the organ of the German National Socialist Party appearing at Duchcov (Dux), the *Sudetendeutsche Tageszeitung*, the organ of the German Nationalist Party appearing at Ústí nad Labem (Aussig an der Elbe), etc. In Moravia German dailies appear at Brno, Olomouc, Moravská Ostrava and Opava, and in Slovakia at Bratislava.

The Hungarian Press in Czechoslovakia.

The Hungarian press is concentrated in the towns of Slovakia and Ruthenia. Although more concentrated than the Slovak press, it lacks the latter's organisation. The *Pragai Magyar Hirlap* (The Hungarian Journal of Prague), the central organ of the Hungarian Opposition, appears in Prague.



The Baths at Jáchymov.

PUBLIC HEALTH

Since 1918, when the new State was established, Czechoslovakia has had a Ministry of Public Health and Physical Culture, to which are subordinate the former territorial and district public health authorities.

At the beginning of the existence of the Republic there were considerable defects, as a result of the World War, in all branches of the public administration, and not least in that of public health. Under-feeding had led to a prevalence of infectious diseases, tuberculosis and venereal diseases. The eastern parts of the Republic were threatened with small-pox and typhus. There was a high death rate. In the War period the death rate was 24.02 per 1000 inhabitants, but in consequence of the measures taken by the public health service this figure had dropped by the year 1923 to 15.01, and since then the death rate has remained practically at the same level. A considerable number of the deaths were due to infectious complaints (about 46 persons per 100,000 died of these diseases). Hence a law was passed making inoculation compulsory. A number of isolation hospitals were constructed, and an ambulance train and a motor ambulance service were established mainly for Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia. To-day extensive epidemics are rare in Czechoslovakia, and endemic diseases (mainly typhus in Carpathian Ruthenia under the pre-War régime) are completely stamped out.

A difficult problem, however, is tuberculosis; as in other States, the number of cases and deaths from this disease has steadily

increased. In the year 1923 there were 26.226 cases and in 1926 as many as 27.492. Tuberculosis accounted in 1923 for 12.63% of all the deaths from diseases, but in 1926 the percentage had risen to 22.24%.

As regards morbidity some 80.000 Prague school children aged 6 to 14 were examined in 1927 by the Pirquet method, and of this number of children 65% reacted.

Preventive means still remain, therefore, the most important question. To-day there are altogether 221 anti-tuberculosis dispensaries. The fight against this disease is carried on by a special organization known as the Masaryk League for Prevention of Tuberculosis.

Medical treatment for consumptives is provided in the public hospitals and in 38 well-equipped sanatoria for children and adults. In addition, there are 34 special departments attached to the general hospitals.

Great efforts had to be made also in the fight against venereal diseases. To-day a special law provides for treatment of persons afflicted by such complaints, for preventive measures in special dispensaries, for propaganda, and for scientific research. In consequence of this activity, the number of cases is decreasing from year to year.

For the suppression of trachoma, which from ancient times has been prevalent in Slovakia, a special inspectorate has been established with 80 ambulance detachments and 23 specialists.

In Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia there were splendidly equipped hospitals, with the best physicians in attendance, in the days of the old régime. After the revolution of October, 1918, these hospitals were in a defective condition as a result of the War, but their original high level of efficiency was quickly reached once more with the help of subsidies from the State. In view of their special importance, five of these institutions were taken over by the State administration. The State also controls the Prague general public hospital, to which are attached the clinics of the Czech and German Universities of Prague.

In the Czechoslovak Republic there are altogether 163 hospitals (State, autonomous, and private) with a total of 27.000 beds.

In Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia the care of insane persons was in the hands of the territorial authorities, but in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia it was in the hands of the State administration authorities. In Bohemia there are 6 large lunatic asylums with 7108 beds, in Moravia 4 asylums with 3043 beds, and in Silesia 2 asylums with 556 beds.

For the time being there are in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia for the treatment of the mentally diseased only specially established sections at the public hospitals.

Czechoslovakia possesses some 6 maternity hospitals with 883 beds and a number of foundling hospitals. The Society for the Protection of Mothers and Children deals with questions of child welfare, and similar work is carried on by the Czecho-

slovak Red Cross. The State assists these voluntary activities with subsidies. The result of such endeavours is seen mainly in the decline of the infantile mortality rate.

Sanitation in dwelling-houses is controlled by special regulations in the various districts. The building laws date from the period before the War (for Prague from the year 1886, for the rest of Bohemia from 1889, for Moravia from 1914, and for Bratislava from 1873), a new Housing Act was passed in 1920. These enactments



Poděbrady Spa.

provide for the construction of houses, the removal of refuse, the laying on of water for drinking and other purposes, and land drainage, etc. All the larger towns and groups of parishes have water mains and sewers; in Czechoslovakia there are some 650 sewerage system and 1571 waterworks. There are also public baths in all the bigger towns.

The State administration authorities also regulate the hygiene and sanitary arrangements of factories. Factory inspection is laid down by two laws passed in 1870 and 1883 respectively, which have been amended in accordance with modern conditions.

In order to remove the harmful effects of underfeeding during the War, closer attention was paid to the inspection of articles of food. The inspection is carried out by officially appointed doctors; there are five specially equipped laboratories for the examination of foodstuffs.

Medical inspection of school children was instituted in many towns by the territorial authorities as far back as the year 1904. In 1922 the Ministry of Public Health and Physical Culture issued uniform instructions for school doctors throughout the whole of the Republic. The results achieved are remarkably good.

In Czechoslovakia there are two types of medical men: official doctors who are occupied mostly in preventive work and practising doctors. To-day the total number of medical men in the Republic is some 6660.

The sale of medicaments and drugs is controlled by law and the proprietors of establishments where such goods are sold must be in the possession of a license issued by the State. Since 1919 there has been an Institute for the Examination of Medicaments, and about 5000 tests are effected annually.

Czechoslovakia holds the foremost position in Europe to-day in respect of its numerous spas many of which have very long traditions. Medicinal springs, climate and the charming situation of the spas—all play a part in the restoration of health. Special mention should be made of the unique radium baths at Jáchymov (Joachimsthal) which, together with the climatic baths at Štrba and Tatranská Lomnice in the Tatra Mountains and the medicinal baths at Sliač, are under State administration and are world-famous. Other celebrated spas are Karlovy Vary (Carlsbad), Mariánské Lázně (Marienbad), Píšťany, Poděbrady and Luhačovice.

A scheme is under consideration for the construction of an Institute of Balneological Research.

With the help of a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation a State Institute of Public Health has been established in connection with the Ministry of Public Health and Physical Culture for the preparation of serums and other materials for inoculation. This institution will include departments for the investigation of foodstuffs and medicaments and a demographical section.



Luhačovice Spa.

THE CZECHOSLOVAK SPAS AND TOURIST TRAFFIC

The Republic of Czechoslovakia, in addition to her flourishing economic situation, her prosperous industrial condition and her highly developed agricultural resources possesses great natural beauties and resources, especially in her mineral and therapeutic springs which are so numerous, and of such importance, that no country can rival her.

These springs are the nucleus of the watering places of world-wide reputation which lie in the north-west of Czechoslovakia, as well as the climatic centres and baths in Slovakia.

For the sake of brevity only the most important and the most renowned will be referred to here although there are in addition to these, a considerable number of lesser known springs that, in efficacy and all other respects, yield in scarcely nothing to the more famous places which will be referred to here.

Karlovy Vary (Carlsbad).

The most important and the best known of the curative springs in Czechoslovakia is Karlovy Vary. This centre has been famous for centuries. Legend tells that the watering place was founded by the "father of the country", Charles IV, in 1358. The fame of this spa rests upon alkaline springs which contain Glauber salts composed of sulphate, carbonate, chlorate and soda and are unique of their kind. Visitors can never forget the spectacle of the "Sprudel" which throws to a consider-

able height mineral water of a temperature of 73° Celsius at the rate of some four millions litres per twenty-four hours.

Karlovy Vary possesses model establishments for taking the cure by drinking the waters and by applying them externally; moreover all the processes of modern therapeutics are in use as well as all other modern hygienic arrangements. In addition, the 35 comfortable hotels and 1,200 *pensions* are of a character which will satisfy the most fastidious of visitors.

The picturesque countryside, the charm of the town and its immediate surroundings enhance the curative quality of the waters. At Karlovy Vary the most stubborn complaints are successfully treated; among them are gout, diabetes, obesity, catarrh of the stomach, debility, gall stone, inflammation of the gall-bladder, jaundice, hyperaemia of the liver, chronic intestinal inflammation, catarrh of the urinary tract and chronic eczema.

Marianské Lázně (Marienbad).

A short distance from Karlovy Vary lies another old-established watering-place, famous since the XVII century for the value of its healing properties. An exhaustive search of the whole Continent would scarcely reveal another spa where Nature's gifts and beauties ally themselves so harmoniously to the works of man. This centre is extraordinarily rich in curative properties and possesses a hundred springs of different types of healing waters; alkaline water reinforced by Glauber salts, alkaline water containing carbonate of lime and ferruginous springs.

The most famous of these springs are the following: The Spring of the Cross, the Ambrose Spring, the Spring of Mary, the Forester's Spring, the Alfred Spring, the Ferdinand Spring, Rudolf and many others.

The waters are successfully employed in cures by drinking and by baths; the salts extracted from the waters, and the waters themselves, are exported to all corners of the world.

Mud baths of great efficacy prepared in establishments where the excellence of the installations is completed by the provision of every modern comfort complete the curative equipment of this important health resort.

Digestive disorders, constipation, gout, arteriosclerosis, obesity and heart and kidney diseases are treated at this centre with great success.

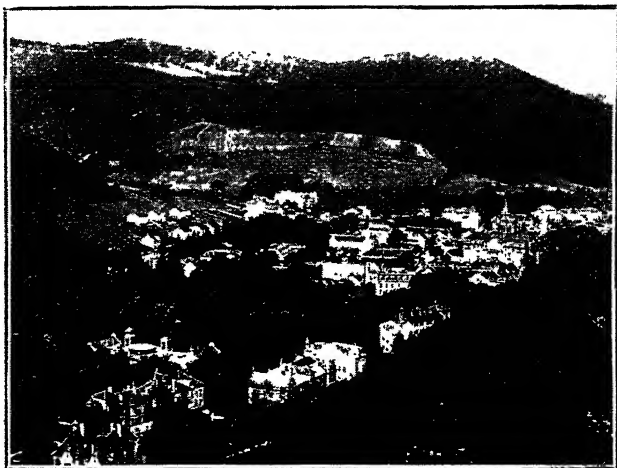
Walks especially laid out over a total length of 69 kilometres with a rise carefully graded up to 5 degrees, contribute greatly to the cure.

Františkovy Lázně (Francisbad).

In the North-West of Bohemia, set amid parks and splendid gardens, lies Františkovy Lázně whose springs gained a great reputation as early as the XVI century.

Besides alkaline and Glauber salts springs such as the Slaný spring, alkaline iron springs with Glauber salts exist, of which the most important is the Frank Spring. Other iron springs slightly charged with Glauber salts contain a much greater quantity of carbonate of iron. Among these latter it suffices to quote the name of the Ocelitý (Steel) Spring.

In addition to the above mentioned springs there are numerous others of an intermittent character. In the centre of the park a gaseous spring



The Spa of Trenčianské Teplice.

rich in carbon dioxide may be seen. This spring contains 99% of carbon dioxide and is employed in a highly modern, well equipped bathing establishment.

Recent borings have revealed new springs rich in carbon dioxide as well as a new spring impregnated with Glauber salts, and this latter is to-day the strongest of all springs of its kind to be found on the Continent.

There are also important mud baths rich in sulphate of iron. The composition of the springs has insured for this watering place the reputation of the first curative centre in the world for the treatment of chronic diseases of women, exudation, heart and kidney trouble especially, sciatica and gout, chronic catarrh of the respiratory organs and anaemia.

The curative establishments are fitted up with all modern comforts and the sanatorium, as well as the hotels and *pensions*, offer every facility and a variety of distractions.

Jáchymov.

This is the most recently established curative centre in Czechoslovakia. It lies in the North-West of Bohemia, being situated on the Ostrov-Jáchymov branch of the Prague-Cheb railway.

In 1905 it was proved that the waters of the Jáchymov mines were strongly radio-active, more so than any others on the continent, their emanation being 600 Mach units. As early as the year following their discovery they were employed in radiotherapy.

A superb establishment, the Radio Palace, has been constructed for cure by emanation as well as for cure by water taken internally and externally. Joined to this curative establishment is a hotel containing 300 luxurious rooms. Here are treated especially abscesses, cancer, sarcoma, chronic tubercular inflammation of the glands and various skin complaints.

The stay in the picturesque district, richly clad in pine forests, contributes greatly to the efficacy of the treatment.

Poděbrady.

This watering-place is situated on the Elbe in the centre of a fertile plain surrounded by wide open stretches of country and forests of odorous trees.

Springs of alkaline water rich in carbon dioxide are found here as well as ferruginous springs employed in the cures by water-drinking and by baths. Near the springs a modern curative establishment has been installed, as well as comfortably furnished hotels and *pensions*.

At Poděbrady chronic heart troubles, skin diseases as well as diseases arising from malnutrition, diabetes, gout and anaemia, are successfully treated.

Luhačovice.

The watering-place of Luhačovice is situated to the East of the Moravian Bezkydes in a delicious valley sheltered by neighbouring forests. The local folk are Slovaks of a distinctively characteristic type.

The curative springs of Luhačovice contain common salt. In addition to carbonate, chlorate and soda, the waters are as rich in iodine as those of Hall.

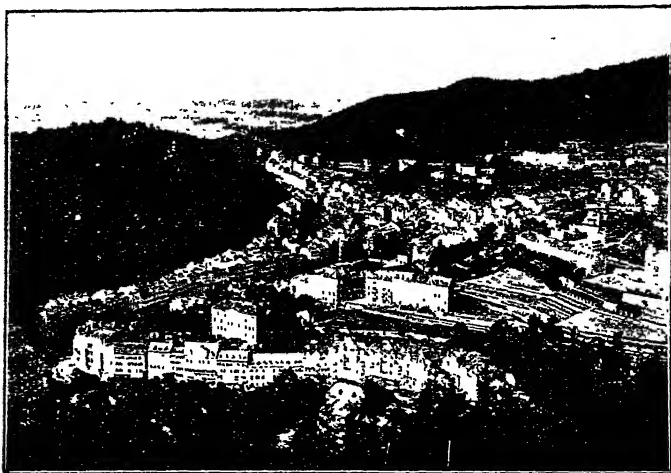
Like all curative centres of the first rank, Luhačovice is equipped with all modern therapeutic installations for cure by water and by mud.

Cures are effected both by internal and external applications and also by inhalations. Among the complaints treated at Luhačovice, intestinal catarrh, catarrh of the respiratory organs, heart diseases and metabol-

ism may be cited. The spa possesses comfortable hotels and walks excellently well-arranged to permit of open air cures.

Tatranská Lomnice.

Tatranská Lomnice is the most beautiful of the curative and climatic centres of the Tatra Mountains and of the Czechoslovak State which is the owner of it. Lying below the Southern slope of Lomnický Štít (2634 metres) and Kežmarský Štít (2556 metres) at an altitude of 950



Karlovy Vary (Carlsbad).

metres, the spa is accessible by direct cars from Poprad on the Prague-Tatranské Lomnice line.

This climatic resort possesses first class hotels, the "Prague" and "Lomnice", both of which are modern, and in addition there are numerous, well-furnished villas and a comfortable baths establishment.

The excellent hotel "Prague" at Tatranská Lomnice yields in nothing to the hotels of the most renowned of the Swiss resorts.

Magnificent sports grounds surround the place and include a specially installed luge run equipped with an electric elevator. The climate of Tatranská Lomnice produces a favourable effect on the digestive processes and on blood formation. It is particularly recommended for the treatment of nerve disorders, Basedow's disease, anaemia, chronic bronchial catarrh and asthma. A stay at Tatranská Lomnice is an excellent complement of a cure taken at any of the other watering places.

Tatranská Lomnice is not only a retreat for invalids but also, at the same time, a centre much sought after by tourists seeking the pleasures of Alpine sports and other forms of exercise.

Štrbské Pleso

Štrbské Pleso possesses the greatest altitude of any of the Czechoslovak climatic stations, being situated at a height of 1351 metres on the Southern slope of the Liptovská Tatras between Kriváň and Gerlachovský štít. Connected by the Štrba station to the Prague—Žilina—Poprad line and to the electric railway of Tatranská Lomnice, the station is at the same time a centre and a starting-place for great numbers of tourists.

Under high peaks, savage and picturesque, whose glittering crests bear snow as late as Spring, is found the lake of Štrbsko surrounded by well laid out walks. The limpid surface of the lake reflects the forests of resinous trees which clothe the flanks of the Tatras, and the beautiful villas and superb hotels erected along its shores.

On a precipitous declivity stands the magnificent Grand Hotel, equipped with a luxurious dining room, a café, a lecture hall, bath rooms, and a great number of bedrooms, the total accommodation being largely augmented by a number of annexes. The terraces of the Grand Hotel offer a magnificent view of the imposing chain of the High Tatras and of the deep valley lying between the Lesser and the High Tatras on the South side and the High Tatras on the North side.

In these resorts are a number of specialists, of extensive experience in their profession, who devote themselves to the treatment of diseases of the respiratory organs, nervous and other affections, and have established a great number of sanatoria in the district. Similar sanatoria have been erected at Starý Smokovec, Tatranská Poljanka, Matiliary, Tat. Kotlina, Žleby and elsewhere.

In no other part of Europe can there be found curative or climatic centres better located than those of the High Tatras. Situated at an average of a 1000 metres, these resorts are favoured with the best climatic and atmospheric conditions.

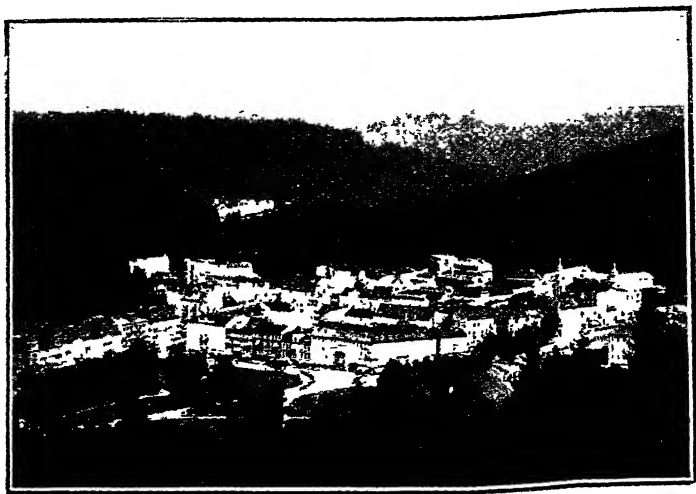
At this altitude the average temperature throughout the year stands at 4° Celsius, and the atmospheric pressure at 670 mm, and nowhere else can such favourable conditions be found as in the High Tatras.

The reduction in the barometric pressure reacts upon the functions of the respiratory organs and upon the circulatory system with equal benefit. At this altitude the air is lightly rarified; in other words, a similar volume of air contains much less oxygen and it is therefore necessary to respire more deeply and to aerate the lungs more profoundly in order that the system may absorb the requisite amount of oxygen.

This increased activity of the respiratory organs has the result of compelling the body to oxygenise at the same time a greater number

of red blood corpuscles. Also the organs responsible for the production of blood are stimulated to greater activity in the increased production of red blood corpuscles to meet the deficiency of oxygen.

The rarification of the atmosphere, however, is not the only factor which exercises a great influence. The ionisation produced by the ultra-violet rays of the sun which are uninterrupted by haze or absorbed by mist as is the case in the lower valleys, exercise an equal influence on the secretion of the glands.



Mariánské Lázně (Marienbad).

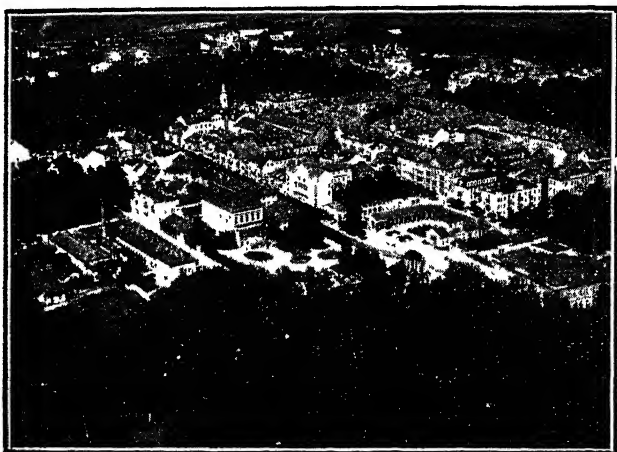
The Tatras have a beneficial influence on lung troubles, on convalescent treatment, on nervous disorders, anaemia of all types, and upon natal disorders of children. They produce an equally favourable effect upon diseases of the glands of internal secretion.

Until comparatively recently high altitude climatic resorts were forbidden to cardiac cases. Nevertheless, it has been proved that sufferers from Basedow's disease and cardiac dilation see their cardiac activity increase after a short stay in the Tatras. The cardiac excitement abates, the disease no longer shows itself and after a short time the distressing symptoms which accompany this affliction disappear and the patient is enabled to resume his customary occupation in his usual surroundings.

The extraordinary results which are obtained in the High Tatras

are explained by the combination of salutary exercises, favourable temperature and suitable atmospheric pressure which is to be found there.

The High Tatras do not have that unfortunate influence felt in a maritime climate in Summer when a suffocating heat makes itself felt, or in Winter when thick fogs are present, nor do they experience the sudden cold of the night due to numerous alterations in the atmospheric pressure. These mountains are not subject to abrupt variation between day and night temperatures, a circumstance which plays a highly im-



Františkovy Lázně (Francoisbad).

portant part in diseases of the glands of internal secretion, as in chlorosis, Basedow's diseases and other illnesses.

Illnesses here are equally protected against the disastrous influence of climates at lower altitudes which present the drawbacks enumerated above.

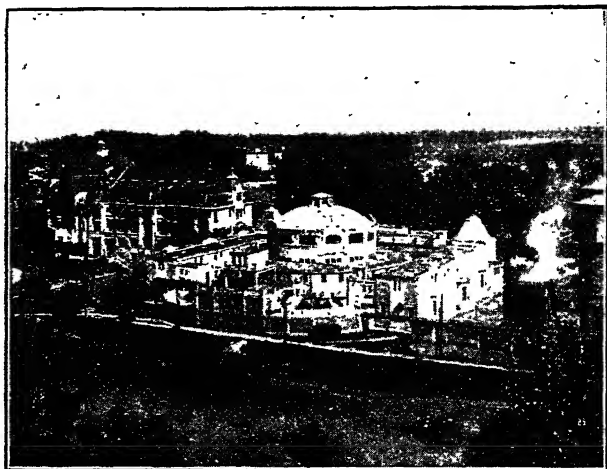
The case is similar for people in excellent health; for them a stay in the High Tatras creates a store of energy which enables them to resist disease, while for young people a sojourn in the High Tatras can be regarded as a prophylactic and a tonic which greatly increases the individual's immunity to disease.

Píšťany.

This watering-place is situated in the valley of the Váh and its radioactive sulphur water enjoyed a curative reputation as early as the XII

century. The water is thrown to the surface from an enormous subterranean basin at a temperature of 67° Celsius, bringing with it radioactive mud (10 Mach units) which is utilised in the preparation of baths of different temperatures as well as in compresses and poultices.

In addition to the possession of luxuriously appointed cure establishments possessing radio-active installations, bath-rooms for water and mud baths, rest rooms, complete equipment for modern physiotherapy, Píšťany also possesses simpler establishments, which, however, are fully



The Píšťany Spa.

equipped with all the necessary aids to physiotherapy. To the buildings devoted to treatment are attached elegant hotels, luxurious and comfortable, but adequate establishments exist for those desiring treatment whose purses demand a more economic style of living.

The combined method of treatment at Píšťany is of a high degree of efficacy especially in cases of chronic rheumatoid arthritis, gout, exudations, the results of accidents, and chronic skin complaints. The resort is open all the year round. The region in which it is situated offers an enchanting variety of excursions and walks, and provides a great number of distractions for invalids.

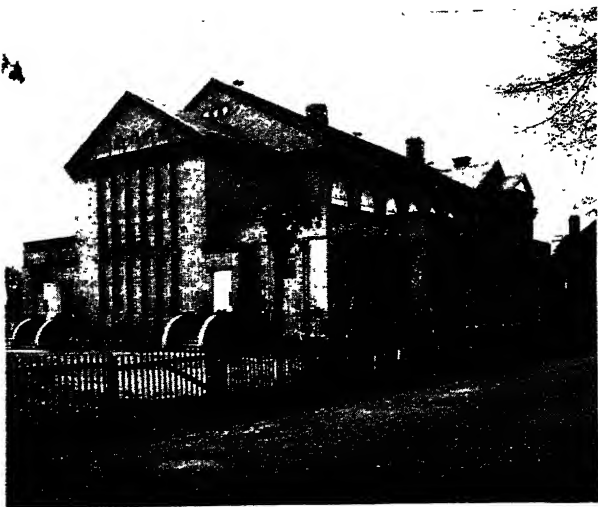
Trenčanské Teplice.

Trenčanské Teplice, by a virtue of its water's healing properties ranks with the aforementioned watering-places. It lies in a delightful

valley in the Carpathians and is encircled by a zone of wooded hills. This watering place possesses many cure establishments built in an Oriental style, among which it is fitting to make particular mention of the "Hanmam" built over the spring, "Sina". The therapeutic springs have a temperature of 36-40° Celsius. This temperature is so suitable for bathing that it requires neither heating nor cooling before it is employed. The radio-active mud is employed also for baths and compresses. The establishment is furnished with halls for radio-active treatment as well as baths, rest rooms, and equipment for physiotherapy and hydrotherapy.

In addition to comfortable hotels there is an abundance of accommodation in private houses and villas. By the beauty of its surroundings, the luxury of its installations, by its whole character as a cure centre, Trenčanské Teplice is justly regarded as a first class watering place.

The natural conditions prevailing in Czechoslovakia are favourable not only to centres for cures but also for tourists; for the country offers a wide variety of scenery. Plains, hills, mountains and valleys go to make up the charm of its great diversity of features, a charm which is further increased by the picturesque character of its innumerable castles, either inhabited or in ruins, by the number of its historic relics, and by the extent of its forests, particularly in the neighbourhood of the frontiers. These have equal attraction at Brzdy, the High Šumava, Rudohoří, Orlické Mountains, the Jeseníky, the Bezkydy or Krkonoše with Sněžka, and the High Tatras; or again there are remarkable stalactite grottoes of Slovakia (at Demánová) and the Kras in Moravia, which contribute to the attraction, at all seasons of the year, of a vast number of tourists. The Czechoslovak Tourist Club devotes itself to the care of these attractions and is the chief organisation for tourists in the Republic. It comprises 29 sections with are affiliated 246 local organisations totalling 45,150 members, and was founded in 1888. During its career it has not ceased to exert a remarkable influence, especially under the Austrian regime, under which it encountered many very stubborn obstacles. There is a total of 522 rest houses under its charge. It maintains and marks out routes, advises as to stations, and protects historic and natural monuments. It is the owner of 28 mountain refuges, 10 look-outs, 10 ruined castles and it maintains 11 mountain refuges and 6 castles and owns also 794,943 square metres of land. It publishes the journal and bulletin of the Czechoslovak Tourist Club, while its library contains 2915 volumes, 589 journals and 1134 maps. The Club organises lectures and trips. These average annually 2204 half-day and 1432 whole-day excursions, while the number of its extended tours runs into 446, inclusive of journeys to foreign lands. It further arranges for courses, and it organises the sport of ski-ing, trips by land and water, Alpine sports, exhibitions and, finally, it maintains relations of an international character.



The Sokol House at Rakovník.

PHYSICAL TRAINING MOVEMENT AND SPORTS

Physical training in Czechoslovakia is extremely popular, particularly in the so-called historical lands (Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia), while in Slovakia its beginning dates from the revolution in 1918, when that country was liberated from the Magyar oppression and united with the lands of the Czech crown. Features of the physical training in Czechoslovakia are its popularity, democratic spirit and self-aid. It became, so to speak, a national usage owing to the great influence of the Sokol gymnastic organization. This was called into life in 1862 and has since penetrated into all classes of society and uniting them into one fraternal and cultural body imbued with national sentiment, strong discipline, and spontaneously growing, without any public help, nay, previous to the War, against the will of the Austrian governments which never favoured Czech or Slavonic elements. Besides the Sokol, which is the most powerful gymnastic organization in Czechoslovakia, there are other numerous gymnastic associations for the foundation of which the Sokol served as model, in so far as the organization and professional management is concerned.

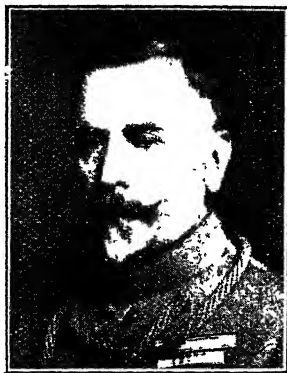
As in all civilized countries there are practised, likewise in Czecho-

slovakia, all three principal lines of physical training, i. e. gymnastics, sports and scouting. Three leading gymnastic unions are: The Sokol, the Union of Workers Organization for Physical Training (Dělnické tělocvičné jednoty) and the Orel (Christian Socialist gymnastic association). All these societies carry on most regular training activities, also instructing children, school boys and girls, possessing their own gymnasiums and exerting great organizing and educational influence upon the nation.

The Sokol body which is far the strongest of all, unites all classes of society irrespective of their profession, religion and political adher-



*Miroslav Tyrš,
The Founder of the Sokol.*

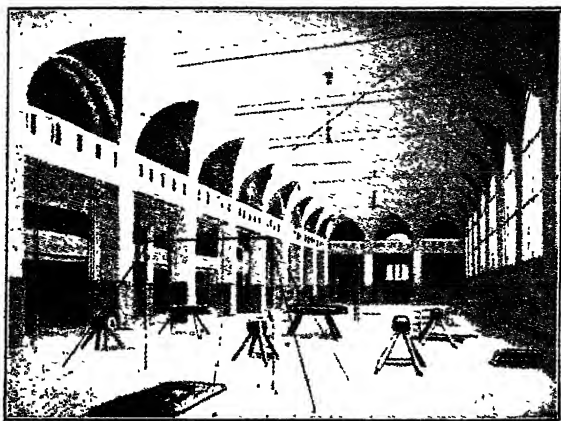


*Dr. Joseph Scheiner,
Leader of the Czechoslovak Sokols.*

ence. The Workers Association hold, on the other hand, Social Democratic principles and one independently organized division is Communist. Members of the clerical Orel societies, being drawn from all classes of Catholics, are adherents of the Christian Socialist (clerical) party, while the members of the Union of Workers Organization belong to the Social Democrats and Communists respectively. As far as professional physical training is concerned there is but little difference between the various gymnastic organizations which all without exception, have adopted the "Tyrš" training system. (Dr. Miroslav Tyrš, professor of the History of Art at the Czech University, was the founder of the Sokol organization, to which he gave a new and carefully planned system of training, organized it and provided it with regulations. He was born in 1832 and died in 1884.) The Sokol, the oldest and most developed institution of its kind, has scored great successes at inter-

national gymnastic tournaments and at the last Olympic Games in Paris in 1924 secured one first prize, three second prizes for displays on gymnastic apparatus and also the second prize in general gymnastics.

Sports in Czechoslovakia are of later origin and became most popular principally after the establishment of the Republic in 1918. Nearly all kinds of sports are taken up, and in the majority of cases a very high standard has been reached, especially in football, tennis, heavy athletics, swimming, fancy skating, hockey and women's sports. The sports clubs and associations are all represented in central organizations—The Czechoslovak Sports Association (Československá sportovní



A Hall in the Tyrš House, Prague.

obec) and the All Sports Committee (Všesportovní výbor). The organization with the largest membership is the Czechoslovak Football Association which also comprises all the unions of the minorities, such as the German, Magyar, Polish and Jewish Unions. Every athlete or sportsman is a member of a certain club or union. A very important factor in the cultivation of sports in the Czechoslovak Olympic Committee which as early as 1896 started to encourage the participation of Czechoslovaks at Olympic games. In 1925 this Committee promoted with great success the International Pedagogic Olympic Congress in Prague. At the Olympic Games in Paris in 1924 Czechoslovakia secured the 13th place among 29 placed and 45 participating nations. The president of the Czechoslovak committee Dr. Jiří Guth-Jarkovský is at present the doyen of the International Olympic Committee.

The following table shows the number of the various organizations for physical training:

- | | | |
|--|--------------------|------------------------|
| 1. The Czechoslovak Sokol Society, founded in 1862, had (according to statistics for 1924) | 3135 clubs and . . | 252,426 male members |
| | | 97,869 female members |
| Youths and girls between 14 and 18 years | 79,123 | members |
| Boys and girls between 6 and 14 years | 215,448 | members |
| | <u>Total</u> | <u>644,866 members</u> |



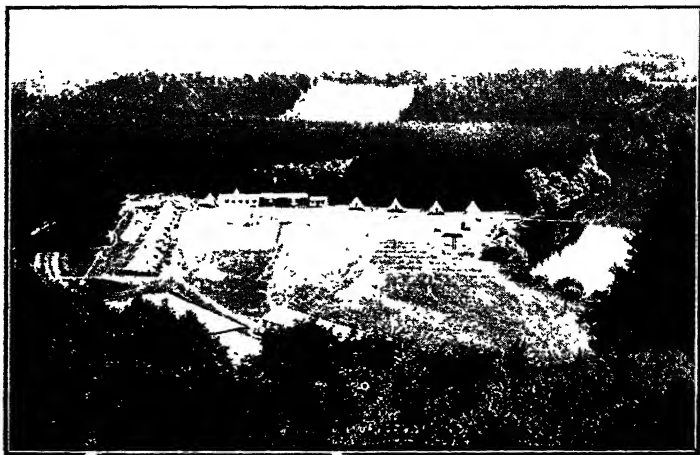
The Sokol fête: Exercises by Pupils.

(The Society owned 386 gymnasiums and 430 playing grounds and places for exercise).

The situation has undergone but little change since.

2. The Federation of Czechoslovak Workers Organizations for Physical Training was founded in 1897 and had, according to statistics for 1927, 914 clubs
37.681 male members
11.439 female members
47.449 children
in all 96.606 members.
3. The Federation of Workers Organizations for Physical Training, was founded in 1920, had 1123 clubs and 95.981 members.

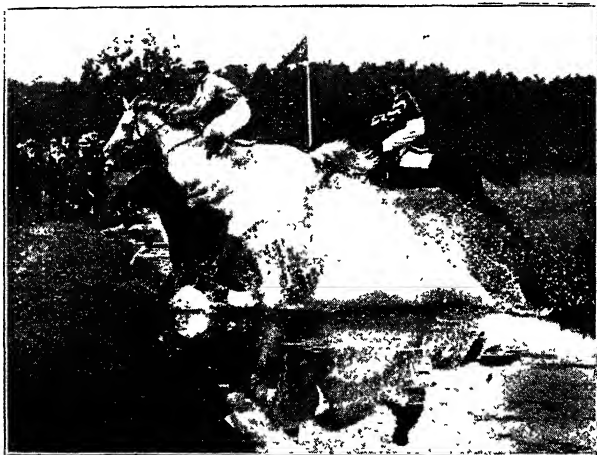
4. The Czechoslovak Central Orel Union, founded in 1902, had in 1923
 1 239 clubs,
 47.933 male members,
 42.936 female members,
 36.171 junior members
 in all 127.040 members. It possesses 78 gymnasiums and playing
 grounds of its own.
5. The Czechoslovak Amateur Athletic Association, founded in 1897,
 has 139 clubs, regular members 1 415.



A Y.M.C.A. Camp on the banks of the Sázava.

6. The Czechoslovak Heavy Athletics Union, has 102 clubs and 2500
 members.
7. The Czechoslovak Automobile Club with 1500 active members.
8. The Czechoslovak Aeroclub, founded in 1913 with 500 members.
9. The Czechoslovak Skating Union, 32 clubs.
10. The Czech Central Union of Cyclists, founded in 1882, 112 clubs.
 6300 cyclists.
11. The Czechoslovak Golf Club with 300 members.
12. Volley Ball and Women's Sports Association, 225 clubs and 3000
 active members.
13. The Czechoslovak Hockey Union, with 43 clubs, 763 players.
14. The Czechoslovak Jockey Club.
15. The Czechoslovak Canoeist Union, with 17 clubs.

16. The Czechoslovak Football Association, founded in 1922. It has 1112 clubs and 130.000 members.
17. The Czechoslovak Tennis Association, founded in 1906, with 182 clubs and 12.000 members.
18. The Federation of Ski Clubs in the Czechoslovak Republic, 118 clubs and 21.000 members.
19. The Czech Yacht Club, founded in 1895, 400 members.
20. The Czechoslovak Swimming Association, 72 clubs, 3320 male members, 830 female members, 2000 boys and girls, 6150 members in all



The Pardubice Steeplechase.

21. The Czechoslovak Union of Amateur Boxers, 18 clubs.
22. The Czechoslovak Shooting Federation, 75 clubs, 5000 members.
23. The Czechoslovak Rifle Association, 73 clubs, 4800 members
24. The Czechoslovak Union of Fencers, 12 clubs.
25. The Czechoslovak Touring Club, 246 branches, 45.150 members.
26. The Czechoslovak Rowing Union, 25 clubs, 2300 members.
27. The Czechoslovak Union of Boy Scouts, 980 branches, 30.260 members.
28. The University Students' Sports Union, 7000 members.
29. Farmers Riding Association, 72 clubs, 7000 members.

Among the minorities in Czechoslovakia cultivating physical training the Germans hold the first place. They have strong gymnastic as-

sociations of national character, united in the "Deutscher Turnerbund". Their workers belong to the "Arbeiter-Turn- und Sportverband". All German gymnastic and sporting associations have their own central union, the "Deutscher Hauptausschuss für die Leibesübungen" in Kádár. The Magyar and Polish associations are numerically comparatively weak. More important in number are the Jewish societies which are organized independently.

In addition to voluntary physical instruction, obligatory courses are



The Grottoes at Sloup (Moravia).

given at elementary and middle schools in which specially trained teachers are the instructors. Physical training in the army is compulsory in every formation and the instruction is given in the early hours of the day.

At an expense of 13 million Czech crowns, provided by the Government and the Prague Municipality, a large space of over 100 acres on the site of the former Strahov quarry is under construction for purposes of physical training. There will be two large stadiums for light athletics (military and civil) and a number of playing grounds for children. A site of 15 acres has at the same time been purchased for a Government Institution for physical training. This ground is now temporarily being used as playing grounds and a course for light athletics.

Near the river Vltava a swimming stadium of 100X20 metres is to be arranged

The Sokol and the Workers Gymnastic Associations also look after the educational interest of their members. In this respect they bear a certain resemblance to the general educational societies. All the said associations are in constant touch with similar institutions abroad. In particular the Sokols' intercourse with the Slavonic nations is to be noted.

In the organization of the Czechoslovak State great care was bestowed upon physical training which has since been looked after by a special Department in the Ministry of Public Health and Physical Training. In addition to this there exists a special advisory committee consisting of representatives of all Government departments concerned, i. e. the Ministry of Public Health and Physical Training, Ministry of Education, Ministry of National Defense, Ministry of Social Welfare, and Ministry for Slovakia. Also the Universities (medical, philosophical and natural science faculties) are represented in this committee which is charged with the consideration of all important problems pertaining to physical training. Bills for submission to Parliament have up to the present time been drafted concerning: Physical instruction, establishment of a State Institution for physical training, construction of playing grounds and places for exercise, regulations for examinations of swimming instructors, formation of sections for physical training under local authorities (town, district, prefecture), letting of school gymnasiums to gymnastic associations and regulations concerning the size and construction of playing grounds and places for exercise.

The activity of the Ministry of Public Health and Physical Training is also directed towards the education of instructors of gymnastics and it arranges courses of various kinds. The same Ministry financially subsidizes gymnastic associations enabling them to construct gymnasiums and playing grounds. In the course of six years 17 million Czech crowns have been spent in this way. It propagates physical training and encourages scientific research work in this direction with a view to the adoption of new methods. For the present the mission is mainly one of the Ministry of advisory character, and of preparing the ground for the passing of the physical training measure.

There are several other Departments that, within the limits of their competency, devote attention to physical training. These are: The Ministry of Education, the Ministry of National Defense, Ministry of Commerce and Industry and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

IV.
STATISTICS

DR. TOMÁŠ GARRIGUE MASARYK,
PRESIDENT OF THE CZECHOSLOVAK REPUBLIC

Since its establishment the Czechoslovak Republic has had at its head President T. G. Masaryk, man of learning, philosopher, sociologist, politician and statesman. Formerly a University professor, he has figured prominently in many branches of the intellectual life of his nation: in philosophy, popular education and political journalism.

Masaryk was born of a poor family at Hodonín on March 7th 1850. At first it was intended that he should follow a trade and for a while he worked in a smithy, but by dint of his own efforts he successfully completed secondary school and university studies. In 1876 he became a Doctor of Philosophy of Vienna University, and two years later he was appointed lecturer in Philosophy at the same university. In 1883 he obtained an appointment as assistant professor in the Czech University of Prague and in 1896 he became full professor.

A man of profound learning and wide European horizon, Masaryk has contributed greatly to the cultural advancement of his nation. Being at the same time a powerful religious personality, he produced a lasting effect on the minds of the students whom he acquainted with the moral and social problems of the age. This explains why the political party which he founded and led (the Czech Realist Party) was of profound significance, despite of its lack of numbers, in Czech cultural and political life, and why the organ of this party, "Čas", at first a weekly publication and then a daily one, was widely read and greatly valued.

In 1891 the Realist group (Masaryk, Dr. Kramář and Prof. Kaizl) joined the Young Czech party; all three obtained seats in Parliament, but owing to a disagreement over its political programme Masaryk left the party for a time and resigned this seat. It was not until universal suffrage was introduced in former Austria that Masaryk, with the help of organized Labour, again occupied a seat in the Reichsrat, for a constituency in Eastern Moravia (in 1907 and also in 1911). In Parliament and the Delegations Masaryk consistently filled the rôle of a pioneer in cultural and social progress, and demanded that the Habsburg Monarchy should be transformed into a democratic State which would treat justly all the nationalities contained within it. But when he saw that Austria-Hungary, in close alliance with Imperial Germany, took the path of aggression and Imperialism, and was unable and unwilling to grant equality and autonomy to its subject nations, he strenuously opposed the internal and especially the foreign policy of the Monarchy. When the World War broke out, Masaryk went abroad in December 1914 to organize the revolutionary movement of the Czechoslovak nation against the Habsburg Monarchy; and after four years

of almost superhuman efforts he returned to be the first President of the Czechoslovak Republic. On May 27th, 1920, his election to the Presidency was confirmed by the National Assembly, and seven years later he was re-elected President for a further period of seven years.

The main characteristic of Masaryk as a man and a politician is his consistent *d e m o c r a t i s m*. He believes in political, cultural, economic and social democracy, and frequently quotes the well-known watchword of Abraham Lincoln: "Government of the people, by the people, for the people". Democracy in foreign policy means to Masaryk peace and organized cooperation between States and nations; In the sphere of internal politics Democracy stands for good order and sound public administration, which includes civic self-government by a people with a lively sense of the common wealth based on the highest possible degree of general and political culture, liberty, equality and social justice throughout the whole nation. In particular, he emphasises the democratic policy, internal and foreign, should be entirely open and sincere; but equally he stresses the fact that democracy should not mean the exclusion of high qualifications and technical ability. During the War Masaryk wrote "Nová Evropa" (The New Europe), in which he explained the principles on which he wished to see the post-War Europe constructed. In 1925 he published his War Memoirs entitled "Světová revoluce za války a po válce 1914-1918", which have been translated into many European languages (the English version is "The Making of a State") and have been described as the most remarkable work on the War, its causes and consequences.

Masaryk took the name Garrigue from his wife who was American by birth; he made her acquaintance in 1876 during his studies at Leipzig. She was a woman of high intelligence and rare moral qualities, and was a great support to Masaryk in all his undertakings. During the War both she and all the Masaryk family were cruelly persecuted by the Austrian authorities. Her health was thereby broken and she died on May 13th, 1923. She was buried at Lány, the seat of the President.

The Chancellery of the President of the Republic is at the Castle (Prague IV). At the head of the Chancellery is Dr. Přemysl Šámal, the President's Chancellor. The President's Chancellery consists of a civil department, a military department, and an office of works for the Castle and the Presidential residence at Lány.

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE CZECHOSLOVAK
REPUBLIC
MINISTERIAL COUNCIL.

Prime Minister:

Dr. Antonín Švehla, Prime Minister, a Member of the House of Deputies.

He was born in 1873 in Hostivař (near Prague), where he is the proprietor of a farm. After concluding his studies he entered public life as organizer of the political and administrative sides of the Czech Farmers' Union. His activity in this direction was recognized in the year 1908 by his election as deputy in the Bohemian Diet and in 1909 by his being made chairman of the executive committee of the Czech Agrarian party. During the War Švehla was one of the leading figures in the internal resistance to the Habsburg Monarchy. A deputy-chairman of the National Committee he played an important part, in company with Dr. Rašín and others, in the revolution of October 28th, 1918. He was a member of the revolutionary National Assembly, and on November 14th, 1918, he became Minister of the Interior, which office he held until September 15th, 1920. As a politician he is distinguished by his skill in mediating between the parliamentary parties and the Government and in arriving at a compromise dictated by the interests of the State as a whole, even in the most difficult situation. He first became Prime Minister on October 7th, 1922, and holds that office to-day.

The Presidium of the Ministerial Council (Prague III., Valdštýnská 12) deals with the political affairs of the Government as a whole, facilitates communications between the Government and the National Assembly, examines proposals for the appointment of State officials in all the Ministries, presents bills and proposals for Government decrees and sees to their sanction and publication, and examines the budgets of the different Ministries and State subventions, etc. It also attends to the agenda of Carpathian Ruthenia. It has its own press department (with library and archives).

To the Presidium of the Ministerial Council are subordinate: 1. the Czechoslovak Press Bureau (Č.T.K.) in Prague with branches at Plzeň (Pilsen), Ústí n. L. (Aussig), Karlovy Vary (Carlsbad), Brno (Brünn), Moravská Ostrava, Olomouc, Opava, Bratislava and Košice; 2. the State printing establishments in Prague, Žatec, Bratislava, Košice, and Užhorod; 3. the official newspapers: *Československá republika*, *Úřední list republiky československé*, *Prager Abendblatt*, and the *Úradné noviny* (published in Bratislava).

To the Presidium of the Ministerial Council are attached: 1. the State Land Office in Prague with district branches throughout the entire Republic; 2. the State Statistical Office in Prague.

MEMBERS OF THE GOVERNMENT:

Ministry of Foreign Affairs

(Prague IV: the Castle. — Toskánský palác. — Prague III: Strakova akademie. — Wolksteinický palác. — Lázcáská ul. č. 11.)

Minister: *Dr. Eduard Beneš*.

Born in 1884 in Kožlany near Rakovník of a peasant family, he studied in Prague and Paris, and obtained the degree of Doctor of Laws and later that of Doctor of Philosophy. He published extensive studies in economics and the social sciences, became Professor of Economics at the Czechoslovak Commercial Academy in Prague and shortly afterwards was appointed Lecturer in Sociology in the Czech Philosophical Faculty of the University of Prague. Before the War he took part in the political activities of the Czech Progressive Party (Masaryk's party). During the War he was one of the leaders of the internal resistance to the Habsburg rule; in September, 1915, he went abroad and became the most zealous collaborator of Masaryk in anti-Habsburg propaganda and in the work of organizing the Czechoslovak legions on all the Allied fronts. In Paris he succeeded Prof. Denis in the directing the publication of the periodical "La Nation Tchèque". The combined efforts of Masaryk, Beneš and Štefánik to arouse in the Entente a sympathetic understanding of the struggle of the oppressed nationalities in Austria-Hungary resulted in January 1917 in a great diplomatic success: in reply to President Wilson the Allies declared the emancipation of the Czechoslovaks to be one of their war aims. After the Prague revolution of October 28th, 1918, Dr. Beneš was on November 14th made Foreign Minister by the National Assembly. As such he represented Czechoslovakia at the Peace Conference where he rendered inestimable services to the young State by reason of his wide knowledge of conditions in the former Habsburg Monarchy and in Central Europe generally and by his debating ability in the discussion of the various political and economic questions closely relating to the interests of the Czechoslovak Republic. He has been Foreign Minister without a break since the foundation of the State, and between September 26th 1921 and October 7th 1922 he was simultaneously Prime Minister. In agreement with President Masaryk he formulated, as the foreign policy of Czechoslovakia, a programme of peace, co-operation with all other States and nations, and reconstruction of post-War Europe on democratic principles. Dr. Beneš takes an active part in the deliberations of the League of Nations, particularly in regard to the question of arbitration, security and disarmament. Politically, Dr. Beneš belongs to the National Socialist party.

Dr. Beneš's deputy is Dr. Kamil Krofta, Minister Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary.

The organization of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs is as follows. The Minister's Cabinet attends to the personal affairs of the Mi-

nister, his official correspondence, the arrangements for his official journeys and visits, and his communications with the Diplomatic Corps. The Bureau attends to matters of ceremonial and etiquette, the formalities of diplomatic relations, the presentation of letters of credence to the President, the latter's foreign correspondence, and to questions relating to decorations and orders. The Presidium of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs has sections for organization and inspection and personal, budgetary and financial sections; to it are subordinate the archives department and the library of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Further, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs contains the following departments: political and juridical affairs, press and publicity, economics and administration.

Czechoslovak Legations and Consulates are established and controlled by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in the following States:

Albania (Diplomatic Agency and Consulate-General in Tirana).

Argentina (Legation in Rio de Janeiro [Brazil], Honorary Consul in Buenos Aires).

Australia (Consulate-General in Sydney, Honorary Consuls in Brisbane, Melbourne and Perth).

Belgium (Legation in Brussels, Honorary Consuls in Antwerp and Brussels).

Brazil (Legation in Rio de Janeiro, Consulate in Sao Paulo, Honorary Consul in Curitiba).

Bulgaria (Legation at Sofia, Consulate in Rustchuk, Honorary Consul in Varna).

China (Czechoslovak delegate in Peking and Shanghai).

Denmark (Legation in Copenhagen with consular section, Honorary Consuls in Aarhus and Odense).

Santo Domingo (Honorary Consul in Santo Domingo).

Ecuador (Honorary Consul in Quito).

Egypt (Legation with consular section in Cairo).

Estonia (Legation in Warsaw, Consulate in Tallin).

Finland (Legation in Warsaw, Consulate in Helsinki, Honorary Consul in Wiipuri).

France (Legation in Paris, Consulates in Paris, Algiers, Lille, Marseilles and Strasbourg, Honorary Consuls in Casablanca, Oran, Lyons, Nice, Bordeaux and Le Havre).

Guatemala (Consulate-General in Mexico City, Vice-Consulate in Guatemala).

Chili (Consulate in Santiago).

India (Consulate in Bombay).

Iceland (Honorary Consul in Reikjavik).

- Italy (Legation with consular section in Rome, Consulates in Milan, Naples and Trieste, Honorary Consuls in Livorno, Bologna, Genoa, Turin, Bari, Catania, Messina, Palermo and Padua).
- Japan (Legation with consular section in Tokio).
- Union of South Africa (Consulate in Cape Town).
- Canada (Consulate-General in Montréal, Honorary Consuls in Toronto and Winnipeg, Honorary Vice-Consul in Fort William).
- Cuba (Legation in Washington, Honorary Consul in Havana).
- Cyprus (Honorary Consul in Larnace).
- Lithuania (Legation in Stockholm, Consulate in Kaunas [Kovno], Honorary Consul in Klaipėda).
- Latvia (Legation in Warsaw, Consulate in Riga).
- Luxemburg (Honorary Consul in Luxemburg).
- Hungary (Legation with consular section in Budapest).
- Malta (Honorary Consul in La Valette).
- Mexico (Consulate General in Mexico City, Honorary Vice-Consul in Gomez Palacio).
- Germany (Legation in Berlin, Consulates in Berlin, Bremen, Dresden, Hamburg, Cologne, Munich, Nuremberg, Chemnitz, Stuttgart and Breslau, Honorary Consuls in Königsberg, Magdeburg, Stettin, Hannover, Leipzig, Düsseldorf, Essen and Frankfurt-on-Main).
- Holland (Legation with consular section in The Hague, Honorary Consuls in Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and Batavia in the Dutch East Indies).
- Norway (Legation with consular section in Stockholm, Honorary Consuls in Oslo, Bergen, Stavanger and Trondhjem).
- New Zealand (Honorary Consul in Wellington).
- Palestine (Consulate in Jerusalem, Honorary Consul in Tel-Aviv).
- Paraguay (Honorary Consul in Asuncion).
- Persia (Consulate in Teheran).
- Poland (Legation with consular section in Warsaw, Consulates in Craców, Lwów and Poznań, Vice-Consul in Katowice).
- Portugal (Legation in Madrid, Consulate in Lisbon, Honorary Consul in Oporto).
- Austria (Legation in Vienna, Consulate-General in Vienna, Consulate in Linz, Vice-Consulate in Gratz).
- Rhodesia (Honorary Vice-Consul in Bulawayo).
- Rumania (Legation with consular section in Bucharest, Consulates in Galatz and Cluj, Vice-Consulate in Cernauti).
- Greece (Legation with consular section in Athens, Consulate in Salonica, Honorary Consuls in Kavalla and Patras).
- U. S. A. (Legation with consular section in Washington, Consulates in Cleveland, Chicago, New York, Pittsburgh and Manila, Honorary Con-

suls in Los Angeles, Galveston, Kansas City, Omaha, San Francisco and Seattle).

Yugoslavia (Legation with consular section in Belgrade, Consulates in Ljubljana, Sarajevo, Skoplje and Zagreb, and Honorary Consul in Split).

Soviet Union (Trade Delegation in Moscow).

Syria (Consulate in Beirut, Honorary Consul in Aleppo).

Spain (Legation with consular section in Madrid, Honorary Consuls in Barcelona, Santander, Valencia, Malaga and Vigo).

Sweden (Legation with consular section in Stockholm, Honorary Consuls in Stockholm, Göteborg, Malmö and Norrköping).

Switzerland (Legation with consular section in Berne, Honorary Consuls in Basle, Zürich and Geneva).

Turkey (Legation with consular section in Constantinople, Consulate in Smyrna).

Uruguay (Honorary Consul in Montevideo).

The Vatican (Legation).

Great Britain and Ireland (Legation in London, Consulates in London, Honorary Consuls in Birmingham, Bradford, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Liverpool, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, and Sheffield).

Venezuela (Honorary Consul in Caracas).

Ministry of National Defence.

(Bubeneč, formerly Kadetka, and Pohořelec, Prague IV)

Minister: *František Udržal*

Born in 1866 at Dolní Roveň near Pardubice where he has a farm, he studied at the grammar school in Pardubice, at the agricultural academy in Tábor and at the High School of Agriculture in Halle. Before the War he was a deputy in the Vienna Reichsrat and in the Bohemian Diet at Prague; he was first a member of the Young Czech party and later of the Czech Agrarian party. He has taken a leading part in the improvement of Czech agriculture. During the War he was a member of the National Committee; after the revolution of October 28th, 1918, he was elected deputy-president of the Revolutionary National Assembly and was also a member of the Committee of Defence. He was appointed Minister of National Defence for the first time on September 26th, 1921, for the second time on October 7th, 1922, and for the third time on October 12th, 1926. Since the foundation of the Republic he has been very busily engaged in all the questions relating to the organization of the Czechoslovak Army; he is popular in political circles and is highly respected for his sense of the needs of the nation as a whole.

Inspector-General of the Army: Gen. Alois Podhajský.

Chief of the General Staff: Gen. Jan Syrový

In addition to a Presidium, the Ministry of National Defence has six departments: general military affairs, artillery and ordnance, aviation, technical, administration, political and juridical. The French Military Mission, the Control Commission of Military Administration, the Advisory Committee on Military Hygiene, and the Czechoslovak Legions Office are subordinate to the Ministry.

Ministry of the Interior.

(Prague IV, Jiřská ul. č. 2. — Prague III, Sněmovní ul. č. 1. — Prague I, Bílkova ul.)

Minister: *Dr. Jan Černý*

Born in 1874 at Uherský Ostroh in Moravia. After completing his law studies he entered the civil service and held appointments in various district offices. In 1911 he entered the office of the Governor of Moravia; during the War he became the vice-president of the governing body of Moravia, and after the revolution of October, 1918, was made Head of the political administration of Moravia. On September 16th, 1920, he was appointed Minister of the Interior and at the same time Head of the Cabinet of Officials; a year later this Cabinet was replaced by the Beneš Government, when Dr. Černý was again made Minister of the Interior. From March 18th, 1926, to October 11th, 1926, he was again Head of a Cabinet of Officials and Minister of the Interior. He is Minister of the Interior also in the present Švehla Government.

In addition to a Presidium, the Ministry of the Interior has 21 departments, and also department N. for dealing with matters relating to the ministrations, the Advisory Committee on Military Hygiene, and the Czechoslovak Legions Office are subordinate to the Ministry.

Ministry of Education.

(Prague III., Karmelitská č. 5, 7 and 8. — Maltézské nám. č. 1.)

Minister: *Dr. Milan Hodža.*

The son of a Protestant pastor, he was born in 1878 at Sučany in Slovakia. After concluding his university studies, he devoted himself to journalism and politics, and zealously endeavoured to arouse the Slovaks from their lethargy. On account of his public activities he was persecuted on more than one occasion by the Hungarian Government. In 1915 he was the only representative of the Slovaks to be elected to the Hungarian Diet. Shortly before the revolution of October 1918 he secured the Doctorate of Vienna University for Slavonic studies. After the revolution he entered the revolutionary National Assembly

as a representative of the Slovak National and Peasant party, and was appointed plenipotentiary of the Czechoslovak Republic at Budapest. At the newly-established Comenius University in Bratislava he was made ordinary professor of Slavonic history. When the Ministry for the Unification of the Legislation and the Organization of the Administration in the Czechoslovak Republic was established on December 6th, 1919, Dr. Hodža became the first Minister. Afterwards he was Minister of Agriculture in both the Švehla Coalition Governments (from December 7th, 1922, to March 18th, 1926). On October 12th, 1926, he became Minister of Education in the present Czech-German Cabinet. Politically, he belongs to the Agrarian party.

The Ministry of Education has charge of all categories of the State educational establishments (from the elementary schools to the universities), of all matters relating to popular instruction, of cultural relations with foreign countries, church affairs, educational endowments, and of the social welfare of the students. The Ministry of Education supervises the State publishing establishment at Prague with its branches at Brno and Bratislava.

Ministry of Finance.

Prague I., palác Clam-Gallasův, Husova tř. 20. — Prague I., ul. Karoliny Světlé 195/6. — Prague II., Voršilská 3. — Prague II., Nekázanka 858. — Prague II., Hybernská ul. č. 1. — Prague III., Josefská 4. — Prague III., Letenská ul. č. 525.

Minister: *Dr. Karel Engliš*

Born in 1880 at Hrabýň in Silesia, he is Professor of Economics, Finance and Statistics at the Masaryk University of Brno, and author of numerous works on economics and finance. Before the revolution he was deputy in the Moravian Diet and a member of the Moravian Educational Council. After the revolution he was sent to the National Assembly as a representative of the National Democrat Party, and at the first general election he became a member of the House of Deputies (later he left the National Democrat party). He was in charge of the State finances in 1920, 1921, 1925 and 1926; on October 12th, 1926, he entered, as Finance Minister, the third Švehla Government.

The Deputy-Minister is Dr. Boh. Vlásaš, departmental chief and Minister Plenipotentiary.

To the Finance Ministry are subordinate; the Directorate of the State Debt of the Czechoslovak Republic, the Treasury, the Directorate of the Tobacco Monopoly, the Directorate of the State Lotteries, and the State finance departments in Prague, Brno, Bratislava and Užhorod.

Ministry of Industry, Commerce and Trade.

(Prague III., Valdštýnské nám. č. 4. — Prague III., Lázeňská ul. (Wolkenšteinský palác), Prague I., Sanytrova ul. č. 5.)

Minister: *Dr. Fr. Peroutka.*

(Until April 28th, 1928.)

Born in 1879 at Kutná Hora. After concluding his law studies, he occupied a position during the years 1904 to 1907 in the Prague Chamber of Commerce. Afterwards he entered the Ministry of Commerce in Vienna where he remained until the revolution. In 1918 he was appointed Counsellor to the Czechoslovak Legation in Vienna; in 1919 he was appointed Ministerial Councillor in the Ministry of Commerce in Prague and later Director of the commercial policy section in the Office of Foreign Trade. In 1921 he was promoted to departmental chief. Dr. Peroutka has taken a leading part in all the commercial negotiations of the Czechoslovak Republic with other States. He was first made Minister of Commerce in the second Černý Government in 1926, and for the second time in the present Švehla Cabinet.

Minister: *M. Ladislav Novák.*

Born in Prague on the 5th of April 1872, he concluded his studies at the College of Technology in that city, and then passed several years in various business concerns at home and abroad, finally becoming a director of the engineering firm of Novák & Jahn. In this capacity he took a prominent part in the organization of the Czech machinery industry. He is a leading figure in numerous industrial corporations. He is also a talented writer, and the author of successful dramas and librettos. He was one of the signatories in 1917 of the Manifesto of Czechoslovak Authors which played a notable rôle in the history of the opposition of the Czechoslovak Nation at home to the Habsburg regime. The present is M. Novák's third term of office as Minister of Commerce, for he first held the post from September 26th 1921 to October 7th 1922 in the Beneš Cabinet, and secondly in the Švehla Cabinet until December 9th 1925. He is a member of the Czechoslovak National Democratic Party.

To the Ministry of Industry, Commerce and Trade are subordinate; the Patents Office, the Central State Service for the Improvement of Trade (with an independent institute at Turčianský Sv. Martin), the Advisory Body for Economic Questions, the State Trades Council, and the Czechoslovak Customs Council.

Ministry of Posts and Telegraphs.

(Smíchov, Holečkova ul. č. 36.)

Minister: *Dr. Fr. Jan Nosek.*

Born in 1886 at Chrudim. After concluding his law studies he entered the State financial service, in which he obtained the title of Financial

Commissioner. After the revolution of October, 1918, he was sent by the Czechoslovak People's party to the Revolutionary National Assembly in which he was member of the Constitutional and Financial Committees. In the elections of 1920 and 1925 he was returned as a member of the People's party; in the House of Deputies he worked with great zeal as rapporteur for numerous bills in the Constitutional and Budget Committees and in the Commission on Capital Levy. Dr. Nosek is one of the leaders of the Czechoslovak People's party which he represented in the second Švehla Ministry when he was Minister of the Interior (from December 10th, 1925, to March 17th, 1926), and in the third Švehla Cabinet when he was made Minister of Posts and Telegraphs.

In addition to a Presidium, the Ministry of Posts and Telegraphs comprises 19 departments and has control of the following organizations: the Postal Finance Office, the Telegraph and Telephone Office, the State Control Office supervising the printing of postal forms and the Administration of the postal motor-transport service.

The Postal Cheque Office in Prague and Brno is likewise subordinate to the Ministry of Posts and Telegraphs.

Ministry of Railways.

(Prague II., Dlážděná ul. č. 5. — Hybernská 12. — Masarykovo nádraží Hooverova tř. č. 11. — Palackého náměstí. — Karlín, Palackého tř. 552. Žižkov, Karlova tř. č. 32. — Král. Vinohrady, Korunní tř. č. 15).

Minister: *Josef V. Najman*:

Born in 1882 at Bohdanská Skála near Hořice, he studied commerce and later became publisher and editor of a number of journals for various branches of trade and commerce. After the revolution he organized an independent Traders' party; he became its chairman and represented it in the House of Deputies and in numerous Czechoslovak commercial and trading organizations. On October 12th, 1926 he was made Minister of Railways.

The Ministry of Railways has 6 departments: juridical and administrative, commercial, construction, engines and transport. Further there exist an Administrative Body, a Standing Inspection Commission, and a Central Construction Board.

Ministry of Agriculture.

(Prague II., Jungmannova tř. č. 18. — Václavské nám. (Rokoko). Prague III., Mostecká ul. 15. — Král. Vinohrady, Chocholoušková ul. Pštroska č. 9. — Vršovice, Palackého tř. 14. — Bubeneč, Bubenečská tř. 470.)

Minister: *Dr. Otakar Srdínko*.

Born in 1875 of an old-established yeoman family at Svobodné Dvory near Hradec Králové. After completing his medical studies, he

was appointed in 1901 to a lectureship in histology and embryology at the University of Prague; in 1906 he became extraordinary professor, and in 1915 full professor. Dr. Srdínko is a regular member of the Royal Bohemian Society of Sciences and of the Czech Academy of Sciences; he has written numerous scientific works and many articles on political, university, and agricultural questions. After the revolution he was a member of the revolutionary National Assembly, and at the 1920 and 1925 elections he became a deputy of the Republican (Agrarian) party, to which he still belongs. In the House of Deputies he was from the outset a member of the Budget Committee, and for a number of years has been made chief rapporteur for the State Budget. In addition to this, he was in 1925 a member of the Cultural Committee. After the autumn elections of 1925 he was Minister of Education in the Švehla Government (from December 9th, 1925, to March 18th, 1926), and on October 13th, 1926 he was appointed Minister of Agriculture.

The Ministry of Agriculture comprises 7 departments, a section for Slovakia at Bratislava, and a section for Carpathian Ruthenia at Užhorod.

The Ministry of Agriculture controls State and private agricultural schools, agricultural research institutes, experimental stations and model farms, State stud-farms, agricultural labour offices, an agricultural accident insurance office in Slovakia, a State agricultural technical service, State offices for agrarian operations, a department for river regulation in Prague, Brno and Opava, a State forestry service, the administrations of forests belonging to and leased by the State, agricultural inspectors, and specialist inspectors, instructors and advisers.

Ministry of Justice.

(Prague IV., the former Cadet School).

Minister: *Dr. Robert Mayr-Harting.*

Born in 1874 at Vienna. After completing his law studies, he entered the service of the law-courts, but in 1899 he was appointed to a post in the Ministry of Justice in Vienna. Two years later he became lecturer in civil law at Vienna University; in 1905 he became assistant professor and in 1906 full professor, and he was subsequently appointed to the German University in Prague. After the revolution of October 28th, 1918, Dr. Mayr-Harting, as one of the leaders of the German Christian Social party, took an active part in political life and, finally adopted the positive programme of activism which endeavours, on a Constitutional basis, to secure for the minority in the Czechoslovak Republic full equality of rights and an adequate share of power in the Government. Dr. Mayr-Harting became Minister of Justice on October 12th, 1926.

The Ministry of Justice, which is divided into 4 departments, draws up bills and decrees relating to questions of private and criminal law, arranges the procedure in civil and criminal cases, and supervises the law-courts, the justiciary authorities and institutions, as well as the activities of advocates and notaries. The Ministry decides as the final instance all affairs of the administration of justice; it supervises the execution of sentences, nominates judges and legal officials, and appoints notaries and the non-professional judges.

Ministry of Public Works.

(Prague-Smíchov, Preslova 6.)

Minister: *Dr. František Spina.*

Born in 1868 at Trnávce in Moravia, he is Professor of Czechoslovak Language and Literature and of Western Slavonic Philology at the German University of Prague. A member of the German Agrarian party, he has been parliamentary deputy since 1920, and has been chairman of the parliamentary club of his party. After the November elections he became deputy-president of the House of Deputies. Dr. Spina is one of the leading representatives of the activist movement which is in favour of the active co-operation of the Germans in the Czechoslovak Republic. He was appointed Minister of Public Works on October 12th, 1926.

The Ministry of Public Works is organized in 7 departments: the construction and administration of State buildings and housing questions; economic affairs; the construction and administration of highways and bridges, together with technical, boundary and land-surveying affairs; machine and electrical engineering; mining and foundries; legislative and juridical administrative affairs; and the State mining and metallurgical undertakings.

To the Ministry of Public Works are attached the following offices and institutes: the Directorate for the construction of waterways, the Hydrological Institute, the Central Office for the inspectors of the gauge service, the Institute for the Economical Use of Fuel, the Czechoslovak Geological Institute, the Czechoslovak Radiological Institute, the State Civil Aerodrome at Kbely, the State Sales Department for Mineral Products.

Amongst the offices and institutes which are subordinate to the Ministry of Public Works should be mentioned the Public Works Department in Bratislava, the Czechoslovak Navigation Office, and the Chief Stamp Office.

Ministry of Social Welfare.

(Prague II., Palackého nám.)

Minister: Monsignor *Dr. Jan Šrámek*.

Born in 1870 at Grygov in Moravia. After completing his studies at the Theological Faculty in Olomouc, he entered the priesthood and later became lecturer in theology at Brno. He was the chief organizer of the Czech Christian Social party in Moravia; in 1906 he was chosen by this party as deputy to sit in the Diet and a year later as deputy in the Vienna Reichsrat. After the revolution of October 1918, he became leader of the Czechoslovak People's party, a member of the revolutionary and later of the elected National Assembly, and since 1921 he has been a Cabinet Minister. In September, 1921, he became Minister of Railways, and in October 1922 he was made Minister of Public Health. After the elections of November 1925, he became Minister of Posts and Telegraphs, and on October 12th, he was appointed Minister of Social Welfare. Dr. Šrámek is considered a very capable politician and diplomat.

The offices and institutes subordinate to the Ministry of Social Welfare are: the Social Welfare Department in Bratislava, the Social Welfare Department for Carpathian Ruthenia at Užhorod, and the offices of the War Victims Welfare Authorities in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia; in Slovakia there are 33 trade inspection offices and State institutes for young persons requiring protection, such as State-supported Children's Homes, Orphanages, a Reformatory (in Košice), and Institutes for the Deaf and Dumb and for the Blind.

Ministry of Food Supplies.

(Prague III., Strakova akademie pod Letnou.)

Established after the revolution of October, 1918, to counteract the speculation in food which had been one of the consequences of the World War, this Ministry is now to be liquidated at an early date. The Ministry is for the present in charge of Dr. Jan Černý, the Minister of the Interior.

Ministry of Public Health and Physical Culture.

(Prague-Smíchov, Zborovská ul. — Prague III., Tržiště č. 366. — Prague I., Staroměstské nám. č. 16.)

Minister: *Dr. Josef Tiso*.

A Roman Catholic priest and Professor of Theology at Nitra, he was born in 1887 at Velká Byteč. He is a member of the Slovak Peop-

le's party, and after the latter had agreed to participate in the present Švehla Government he was appointed, in January 1926, Minister of Public Health and Physical Culture.

This Ministry has 5 departments: sanitary service and inspection; hygiene; social pathology; physical culture; administrative and juridical. There are also Public Health Departments at Bratislava and Užhorod.

To the Ministry of Public Health are attached: the Administration Authorities of the State Spas, the State Health Council, the Advisory Committee for Physical Culture, and the Advisory Committee on Sexual Disease.

Ministry for the Unification of the Laws and the Organization of the Administration. (Ministry of Unification.).

(Prague I., Dušní ul. č. 17.).

Minister: *Dr. Marko Gažík.*

Born in 1887 at Turzovec in Slovakia, he is a lawyer by profession, having practised at Trenčín and latterly at Bratislava. He is a member of the Slovak People's party and entered the Government in January 1926.

The Ministry of Unification was established by a law promulgated on July 22nd, 1919, and is entrusted with the task of unifying the juridical system in the Czechoslovak Republic, this unification being necessary, owing to the fact that after the revolution Austrian law was in force in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia, whilst Hungarian law was in operation in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia.

The Supreme Audit Control Office.

(Prague I., Křížovnická 10. — Prague II., Štěpánská 37.).

President: *Dr. Eduard Koerner.*

The Supreme Audit Control Office is on an equal footing with the Ministries, but is entirely independent of them. It supervises the State finances, the State properties and the Czechoslovak State Debt and audits the State finances.

THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY OF THE CZECHOSLOVAK REPUBLIC

A. House of Deputies.

The House of Deputies contains 300 members who are elected in 23 electoral districts (10 in Bohemia, 5 in Moravia and Silesia, 7 in Slovakia, and one in Carpathian Ruthenia).

The Committees of the House of Deputies number 16: Army, Transport, Immunity, Initiative, Incompatibility, Cultural, Budget, Social Policy, Constitutional, Investigation, Foreign Affairs, Public Health, Agricultural Supplies, Trades and the Standing Committee.*)

There are 14 "Clubs" in the House of Deputies, one for each of the political parties; there are six independent deputies who do not belong to any of the clubs. The Clubs are as follows:

1. The Club of Deputies of the Agrarian (Republican) Party. Its chairman is Frant. Staněk and it has 46 members.
2. The Club of Deputies of the Czechoslovak Communist Party (41 members; chairman, J. Haken).
3. The Club of Deputies of the Czechoslovak People's Party (31 members; chairman, J. Šrámek).
4. The Club of Deputies of the Czechoslovak Social Democrat Party (29 members; chairman, Fr. Tomášek).
5. The Club of Deputies of the Czechoslovak National Socialist Party (27 members; chairman, Dr. Emil Franke).
6. The Club of Deputies of the Slovak People's Party (23 members; chairman, Andrej Hlinka).
7. The Club of Deputies of the Czechoslovak National Democrat Party (13 members; chairman, Dr. Frant. Lukavský).
8. The Club of Deputies of the Traders' Party (13 members; chairman, R. Milčoch).
9. The united Club of the German Farmers' Union (Bund der Landwirte), the German Traders' Party, and the Magyar National Party (22 members; chairman, F. Windirsch).
10. The Club of the Deputies of the German Social Democrat Workers' Party (17 members; chairman, Dr. L. Czech).
11. The Club of the Deputies of the German Christian Socialist People's Party (13 members; chairman, Dr. F. Luschka).
12. The Club of the Deputies of the German Nationalist Party (10 members; chairman, Dr. Jos. Keibl).
13. The Club of the Deputies of the German National Socialist Workers' Party (7 members; chairman, R. Jung).

*) The Standing Committee consists of 6 Deputies and 8 Senators.

14. The Club of Deputies of the Hungarian Christian Social Party (4 members; chairman, Dr. G. Szüllő).
15. Six independent Deputies, not belonging to any Club.

The Presidium of the House of Deputies.

President: Jan Malypetr (Republican Party).

Deputy-Presidents: Dr. Jan Buday (People's Party), Jan Dostálék (People's Party), Frant. Horák (Traders' Party), Jan Slavíček (National Socialist), Josef Stivín (Social Democrat), Wolfgang Zierhut (German Farmers' Union).

B. Senate.

The Senate consists of 150 members who are elected in 12 electoral areas (5 in Bohemia, 2 in Moravia and Silesia, 4 in Slovakia, and one in Carpathian Ruthenia).

In the Senate there are 14 Committees: Army, Immunity, Initiative, Incompatibility, Cultural, Financial, Budget, Social Policy, Social Questions and Old-Age Insurance, Transport, Constitutional, Foreign Affairs, Trade and Commercial, and the Standing Committee.

There are 14 Clubs in the Senate:

1. The Club of Senators of the Agrarian (Republican) Party (22 members; chairman, Dr. V. Šrobár).
2. The Club of Senators of the Czechoslovak Communist Party (20 members; chairman, Fr. Toužil).
3. The Club of Senators of the Czechoslovak People's Party (16 members; chairman, Dr. Fr. Reyl).
4. The Club of Senators of the Czechoslovak Social Democrat Workers' Party (14 members; chairman, Dr. Fr. Soukup).
5. The Club of Senators of the Czechoslovak National Socialist Party (14 members; chairman, V. Klofáč).
6. The Club of Senators of the Slovak People's Party (12 members; chairman, Dr. J. Kovalík).
7. The Club of Senators of the Czechoslovak National Democrat Party (7 members; chairman, Dr. Jar. Brabec).
8. The Club of Senators of the Traders' Party (6 members; chairman, Jos. Thoř).
9. The Club of the German Farmers' Union (Bund der Landwirte), the German Traders' Party, and the Magyar National Party (13 members; chairman, Th. Zuleger).
10. The Club of Senators of the German Social Democrat Workers' Party (9 members; chairman, Dr. K. Heller).
11. The Club of Senators of the German Christian Social People's Party (7 members; chairman, Dr. K. Hilgenreiner).

12. The Club of Senators of the German Nationalist Party (5 members; chairman, Dr. H. Brunar).

13. The Club of Senators of the German National Socialist Workers' Party (3 members; chairman, A. Fahrner).

14. The Club of Senators of the Hungarian Christian Social Party (2 members; chairman, Dr. L. Franciscy).

The Presidium of the Senate is composed as follows:

President: Dr. Mořic Hruban (Czechoslovak People's Party).

Deputy-Presidents: Jos. Böhr (German Christian Social Party), Dr. Jar. Brabec (National Democrat), Václav Donát (Republican), Václav Kiofáč (National Socialist), Dr. K. Krčméry (Slovak People's Party), and Dr. Frant. Soukup (Czechoslovak Social Democrat Party).

REPRESENTATION OF FOREIGN COUNTRIES

A. Légations.

Argentina: Prague-II., Václavské nám., Hotel Ambassador. Minister Roberto Levillier (accredited August 8, 1928).

Austria: Prague-XII., Fochova ul. 9. Dr. Ferdinand Marek (April 11, 1922).

Belgium: Prague-III., Valdštýnská ul. 187. George de Raymond (March 22, 1924).

Brazil: Prague-II., Petřská ul. 9, Mario de Belfort Ramos (June 28, 1926).

Bulgaria: Prague-XIII., Polská 20. Boris Vazov (December 16, 1927).

Chile: Prague-II., Národní tř., Palác Riunione Adriatica. Gabrera Grez, chargé d'affaires (August 16, 1927).

Cuba: Prague-II., Hotel Ambassador. Dr. Eduardo Usubiaga (October 27, 1928).

Denmark: Warsaw, Niels Johan Wulfsberg Host (September 21, 1923). Chargé d'affaires: Chr. Fred. Haxthausen, Prague XII, na Zájedzu 1977.

Egypt: Berlin, Grunewald 8, Feldbrückstrasse. Seifulah Yousry Pasha (June 15, 1927). Chargé d'affaires a. i.: Ab'del Kh'alek Hassona Bey, Prague II., Dittrichova 24.

Estonia: Warsaw, Al. Ujazdowska 19/4. Otto Strandmann (November 11, 1927).

Finland: Riga, Kalpaka boulv. I. Gustav Idaman (October 27, 1927).

France: Prague-III., Velkopřevorské nám. Buquoy Palace. François J. Charles-Roux (January 13, 1927).

Germany: Prague-III., Thunovská ul. 183. Dr. Walter Koch (October 29, 1921).

Great Britain: Prague-III., Thunovská 12. Sir James William Ronald Macleay (June 3, 1927). — E. A. Keeling, first secretary.

- Greece: Prague-II., Mikulandská 9. Constantin Psaroudas (November 9, 1925).
- Holy See: Prague-IV., Arcibiskupský palác. Monsignor Ciriaci (May 11, 1928).
- Hungary: Prague-III., Šeříková ul. 1. Dr. Constantin Masirevich (June 25, 1925).
- Italy: Prague-III., Nerudova ul. 20. Luigi Vannutelli Rey (April 28, 1928).
- Japan: Prague III., Maltézské nám. 6. Eiichi Kimura (May 30, 1928).
- Kingdom of Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes: Prague-III., Velkopřevorské náměstí 4. Branco Lazarević (October 27, 1926).
- Lithuania: Prague-III., Velkopřevorské nám. 1. Dr. Dovas Zaunius (July 12, 1923-absent). Josef Bredikis, chargé d'affaires a. i.
- Mexico: Prague-XVI., Fibichova 6. L. Blazquez, chargé d'affaires (October 7, 1927).
- Netherlands: Prague-III., Nostic Palace. Dr. H. Muller van Weren-dycke (January 11, 1924).
- Norway: Warsaw, Foksal ul. 3. Niels Christian Dietleff, chargé d'affaires (June 15, 1926).
- Persia: Rome, Via Marghera 59. Abol Chassem Amid (August 21, 1925).
- Peru: Dr. Don Glicerio Camino, chargé d'affaires (July 11, 1922-absent).
- Poland: Prague-I., Staroměstské náměstí, palác Kinských. Dr. Wa-claw Grzybowski (October 27, 1927).
- Portugal: Prague-II., Smečky 23. Alberto da Veiga Simoes (June 10, 1927).
- Rumania: Prague-III., Nerudova ul. 5. Th. Emendi (March 14, 1928).
- Spain: Prague-III., Hotel Ambassador. Joaluin de Ezpeleta (June 9, 1927).
- Sweden: Prague-III., Sněmovní 5. Baron Gerhard Löwen (May 5, 1921).
- Switzerland: Prague-I., Divadelní ul. 18. Dr. Hans Segesser-Brunegg (October 26, 1927).
- S. S. S. R. (plenipotentiary representation of S. S. S. R. in Prague): Prague-XII., Villa Tereza 438. V. A. Antonov Ovsejenko.
- Turkey: Prague-XII., Londýnská tř. 68. Ahmed Djévad, chargé d'affaires a. i. (January 17, 1928).
- United States of America: Prague-III., Tržiště 15. Lewis Einstein (December 20, 1921).
- Uruguay: Vienna-III., Reissnerstrasse 16. Dr. Louis Garabelli (August 18, 1921 — absent).

B. Consulates and Passport Office.

- Albania: Prague-XVI., Nábřeží Legií 30, honorary consulate: Ing. J. Matoušek, Honorary Consul.
- Argentina: Prague I., Platnéřská ul. 4, consulate general, F. R. Min-grand, Consul General.

Austria: Prague-II., Krakovská ul. 11, hon. consulate, Kar. Klinger, Hon. Consul General. — Brno, hon. consulate, Aug. Löw-Beer, Hon. Consul General. — Mor. Ostrava, hon. consulate, Jul. Ledinegg, Hon. Consul General. — Bratislava, consulate, Alexich, Director of the consulate.

Belgium: Prague-III., Valdštýnská ulice 8, Villa Velflík, Chancery of the Legation. — Brno, honorary consulate: Hugo Hecht, Hon. Consul. — Plzeň, honorary consulate: Constant. Pierre, Honorary Consul. — Karlovy Vary, honorary vice-consulate: L. Benedikt, Honorary Vice-Consul. — Bratislava, honor. consulate: O. Jamniczky, Hon. Consul.

Brazil: Prague-II., Václavské nám. 10, Consulate: Hor. Sully de Souza. — Rudolf Svoboda, Honor. Vice-Consul.

Bulgaria: Prague-XII., Polská ul. 20, honorary consulate: Prof. Vladislav Šak, Honorary Consul General.

Chile: Prague II., Národní tř., Palace Riunione Adriatica di Sicurtà, consulate general, Art. Gabrera-Grez, Consul General, Vlad. Vladoška, Hon. Vice-Consul. — Honorary consulate: Brno, Fr. Dvořák; Jablonec n. N.: Jindřich Mahla; Bratislava: Dr. B. Naprávil.

Colombia: Prague-II., Revoluční 24, hon. consulate general, Alb. González Fernández, Consul.

Costa-Rica: Prague-II., Rašínovo nám. 30, hon. consulate, Dr. Ferd. Heller, Hon. Consul.

Cuba: Prague-II., Salmovská ul. 11, consulate general, Prospero Pichardo y Arrendondo, Consul General.

Denmark: Plzeň, honorary consulate: Cel. Rypl, Honorary Consul. — Brno, hon. consulate. Alfr. Weinberger, Hon. Consul. — Bratislava, hon. consulate, Korn. Milan Stodola, Hon. Consul.

Egypt: Prague-II., Dittrichova 24, Offices of the Legation and Consulate General, Seifulah Yousry Pasha.

Estonia: Prague-II., Na Poříčí 22, Legiobank Building, honorary consulate, Dr. Jos. Beck, Hon. Consul.

Finland: Prague-II., Lützowova 35, general honorary consulate, Prof. Sedlák, General Hon. Consul. Kaarlo Ruuskanen, Consul. — Karlovy Vary, honorary vice-consulate: K. E. Schlecht, Hon. Vice-Consul. — Brno, Koblišná ul. 29, honorary consulate: Cons. Vichr, Hon. Consul.

France: Prague-III., Velkopřevorské nám., Legation Offices. Joubert, Consul. — Brno, consulate: Sempé, Consul. — Bratislava, consulate: Tamburini, Consul.

Great Britain and Ireland: Sir J. W. R. Macleay, K. C. M. G., Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary, Consul General. — Prague-II., Vlašská ul., palace Lobkovic, vice-consulate, J. W. Taylor, Vice-Consul, director of the vice-consulate. — Prague-III., Thunovská ul. 12, passport office of the Legation, F. F. Clively, director of the passport office. — Liberec, Staroměstské nám. 13, hon. vice-consulate, S. P. Elliot, Hon. Vice-Consul. — Karlovy Vary, honor. vice-consulate, Richard Moser, Honor. Vice-Consul. — Brno, Dornych 27, hon. vice-consulate, G. V. Neumark, Honor.

- Vice-Consul. — Bratislava, Palackého sady 9, vice-consulate, A. E. Dowden, Pro-Consul.
- Greece:** Prague-II., Mikulandská 7, consular chancery of the Legation. — Karlovy Vary, hon. consulate, Dr. Socr. Petridis, Honor. Consul.
- Germany:** Prague-II., Havlíčkovy nám. 7. Passport office of the Legation. — Plzeň, consulate, Herm. Hoffmann-Fölkersamb, Consul. — Liberec, consulate, Fritz Henkel, Consul. — Cheb, passport office. — Walter Graf von Pfeil, Consul, Director of the passport office. — Brno, consulate, Count von Bethusy-Huc, Consul. — Mor. Ostrava, passport office, Erich Karow, Consulate Director of the passport office. — Bratislava, consulate, Dr. Gerhard Schellert, Consul. — Košice, consulate, Dr. Max Hesse, Consul.
- Guatemala:** Praha-II., Panská 10, honor. consulate, Otto Pacovský, Honor. Consul.
- Honduras:** Prague-II., Štěpánská ul. 45, hon. consulate general. (Temporarily unoccupied.)
- Hungary:** Bratislava, consulate, Dr. Lad. Bartók, Consul.
- Italy:** Prague-III., Nerudova ul. 20. — Offices of the Legation: Mor. Ostrava, hon. consulate, Ugo Dadone, director. — Bratislava, hon. consulate, Francesco Palmieri, director of the hon. consulate.
- Japan:** Hon. consulate, J. Reiser, Hon. Consul.
- Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes:** Prague-II., Jindřišská ul. 20. Consulate general, Frano Cvjetiša, Consul General. — Bratislava, consulate, Dr. Aug. Mišetič, Consul. — Karlovy Vary, consulate, Dr. Miloš Besarovič, Consul.
- Latvia:** Prague-II., Panská ul. 5, consulate general, Ing. E. Krasts, Consul General. — Brno, V Hlinkách 40, hon. consulate, Fr. Eichler, Hon. Consul. — Bratislava, Slovenská banka, hon. vice-consulate, Vladim. Makovický, Hon. Vice-Consul.
- Mexico:** Prague-II., Národní tř. 58, consulate general: Edmundo González Roa, Consul.
- Netherlands:** Prague-II., Václavské nám., consulate. Adr. Mar. Doorn, Hon. Consul. — Brno, hon. consulate, Frant. Oswald, dir.
- Norway:** Prague II., Jungmannova tř., Škoda Works Bldg. Honor. consulate general, Dr. techn. h. c. Ing. Frant. Hanuš, Hon. Consul General. — Brno, Jakubské nám. 3, hon. consulate, Ing. K. Hauser, Hon. Consul.
- Panama:** Praha-II., Křemencová ul. 15, honorary consulate, Dr. J. Růžicka, Honor. Consul.
- Paraguay:** Prague-I., Národní tř. 21. Vývozní spolek pro země ČSR, hon. consulate, Jan Ferd. Votruba, Hon. Consul.
- Persia:** Brno, hon. consulate, Ed. Münz, Hon. Consul.
- Peru:** Prague XII., Šmilovského ul. 9, hon. consulate, Gustav A. Steiner, Hon. Consul General. — Brno, hon. consulate, A. Freund, Hon. Consul.
- Poland:** Prague-XVI., Štefánikova tř. 45, consulate, Lad. Lubaczewski, Consul of the 1st class. — Mor. Ostrava, consulate, Dr. Kar. Ripa, Consul. — Bratislava, consulate, Zdzisław Marski, Consul.

- Košice, consular agency, Henryk Wielowilyski, Cons. Attaché.
- Užhorod, vice-consulate, Dr. Zygmunt Zawadowski, Cons. Attaché.
- Portugal:** Prague-II., Smečky 23; consulate, Jos. Kolb, Vice-Consul. negg, Hon. Consul General. — Bratislava, consulate, Hans Hammer, Consul.
- Rumania:** Prague-II., Václavské nám. 67, consular chancery of the Legation. — Prague-XII., „U Divadla“ 1207, hon. consulate, Dr. G. Staca, Hon. Consul. — Brno, Nám. Svobody 17, hon. consulate, Fr. Henych, Hon. Consul. — Bratislava, gener. honor. consulate, Kornel Milan Stodola, Gen. Hon. Consul.
- Salvador:** Prague-II., Štěpánská 45, hon. consulate. (Temporarily unoccupied.
- Spain:** Prague-II., Revoluční tř. 3, hon. consulate, David Carroño, Consul. — Plzeň, hon. vice-consulate, Václav Brožík, Hon. Vice-Consul. — Karlovy Vary, hon. consulate, Dr. Arn. Lorand, Hon. Consul.
- Sweden:** Prague-II., Krakovská 22, hon. consulate, Willy Kinberg, Hon. Consul. — Plzeň, hon. vice-consulate, Ant. Svoboda, Honor. Vice-Consul. — Karlovy Vary, hon. vice-consulate, Max Lederer, Hon. Vice-Consul. — Bratislava, hon. consulate, Dr. Em. Stodola, Hon. Vice-Consul. — Brno, hon. consulate, Dr. V. Dolanský, Hon. Consul.
- Switzerland:** Prague-VII., Bělského tř. 13, chancery of the Legation.
- Turkey:** Prague-XVI., na Hřebenkách, villa „Beneš“, vice-consulate, Ing. Bedri Tahir Bey, Vice-Consul.
- United States of America:** Prague-II., Na Poříčí 22, Legiobank Bldg. consulate, Artur C. Frost, Consul General.
- Uruguay:** Prague-II., Mezibranská ul. 17, hon. consulate, Alfr. Sprinles, Hon. Consul. — Brno, hon. consulate, Alfr. Ziegler, Honor. Consul. — Bratislava, Lorenzova ul. 14, consulate, Gustav Knechtsberger, Hon. Consul.
- Venezuela:** Prague III., Říční ul. 11, hon. consulate, Arn. Faul, Hon. Consul. — Plzeň, Třída Legií 7, hon. consulate, Ing. Frant. Rudolf, Hon. Consul. — Bratislava, Töröková ul. 20, hon. consulate, Dr. Eman. Grégr, Hon. Consul.

THE PRINCIPAL ECONOMIC ORGANISATIONS

- The Consultative Committee for Economic Questions (Poradní sbor pro otázky hospodářské), instituted by the Ministry of Commerce by a Government decree of 1920. Prague III., Valdštýnský palác.
- The National Trades Council (Státní rada živnostenská), founded by the Ministry of Commerce.
- The Czechoslovak Customs-Council (Československá celní rada), founded by the Ministry of Commerce.
- The Patent Office (Patentní úřad), Panská ul. 1.

- The State Water Conservancy Board (Státní vodohospodářská rada). Founded by the Ministry of Commerce.
- The Headquarters of the Czechoslovak Chambers of Commerce and Industry, Prague (Ústředí čsl. obchodních a živnostenských komor v Praze). The following towns have Chambers: Prague, Č. Budějovice, Plzeň, Liberec, Bratislava, Báb. Bystřice and Košice while Hradec Králové has a centre for commercial interests.
- The Council for Commerce and Industry (Rada obchodní a průmyslová). The Commercial Museum of Bohemia, Prague I., Pařížská tř. 9.
- The Institute for the Improvement of Trades (Ústav pro zvelebování živností). Museum of Industrial Technique, supported by the Prague Chamber of Commerce.
- The Provincial Council of Industry for Bohemia. Prague III., Valdštýnské nám.
- The National Institute for the improvement of Trades at Turčanský Sv. Martin, whose functions embrace Slovakia and Ruthenia.
- The Prague Samples Fair, Prague I., Staroměstské nám. 1.
- The Liberec (Reichenberg) Samples Fair.
- The Czechoslovak Export Association. (Vývozní spolek pro země Čsl. republiky), Prague I., Národní tř. 21.
- The Federation of Czechoslovak Banks. (Svaz Čsl. Bank), Praha I., Pařížská tř. 9.
- Federation of Czechoslovak Banking Institutes. (Svaz bankovních firem Čsl. republiky), Praha I., Ovocný trh 4.
- The Federation of Czechoslovak Savings Banks. (Svaz čsl. spořitelén). Praha I., Národní tř. 7.
- The Federation of Credit Banks (Svaz záložen), Prague II., Národní tř. 14.
- The Central Federation of Czechoslovak Industrialists. (Ústřední spolek čsl. průmyslníků), Praha I., Masarykovo nábřeží.
- The Central Society for the Czechoslovak Sugar Industry, (Ústřední spolek čsl. průmyslu cukrovarnického v ČSR.).
- Society for the Brewing Industry in Czechoslovakia, (Spolek pro průmysl pivovarský v Čsr.), Prague II., Havlíčkově nám. 25.
- Agricultural Council for Bohemia, Prague II., Václavské nám. 54.
- Agricultural Council for Moravia, Brno, Zemský dům 11.
- Agricultural Council for Silesia, Opava, Hradecká ul. 1.
- Agricultural Council for Slovakia, Bratislava, Križkova
- Permanent Delegation of the Agricultural Councils, Prague. (Stálá delegace zemědělských rad.)
- The Czechoslovak Agricultural Union. (Zemědělská jednota ČSR.) Prague II., na Florenci 27.

- The Czechoslovak Agricultural Museum. (Československé zemědělské museum), Smíchov, Kinského zahrada 97.
- The Central Union of Agricultural Cooperative Associations (Ústřední jednota hospodářských družstev), Praha II., Hybernská 20.
- "Koopérativa", the Union of Agricultural cooperative purchasers, Prague II., Dlážděná ul. 6.
- Central Federation for Bohemia of German Agricultural Cooperatives. (Ústřední svaz německých hospodářských družstev), Prague.
- Centrokooperativ, The Federation of Czechoslovak Agricultural Cooperative Societies. (Svaz jednot hospodářských družstev CSR.), Prague II., Hybernská ul. 20.
- Produce Exchanges in Prague, Brno, Olomouc and Bratislava.
- The Central Federation of Czechoslovak Cooperatives (Ústřední svaz československých družstev), Social Democrat Party, Prague II., Myslíkova ul. 15.
- The Consumers' Cooperative Society (Velkonákupní společnost konsumních družstev, of the Social Democrat Party). Prague-Karlín, Palackého 63.
- The Union of Czechoslovak Cooperatives of the National Democrat Party (Unie československých družstev), Praha II., Klimentská 11.

LIST OF CZECHOSLOVAK CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE ABROAD

- Australia. — Czechoslovak Chamber of Commerce for Australia, 40, Bayswater Road, Sidney (with branches at Melbourne, Brisbane and Auckland).
- Bulgaria. — The Bulgarian-Czechoslovak Chamber of Commerce, 15, rue Clementine, Sofia.
- Belgium. — The Belgian-Czechoslovak Chamber of Commerce, 48, rue du Lombard, Brussels.
- France. — The Franco-Czechoslovak Chamber of Commerce, (Chambre de Commerce franco-tchécoslovaque), 106, rue de Richelieu, Paris.
- Italy. — The Czechoslovak-Italian Chamber of Commerce (Camera di Commercio Italo-Cecoslovacca), 38, Via Mazzini, Trieste.
The Czechoslovak Chamber of Commerce, 5, Piazza Castello, Milan.
- Hungary. — The Czechoslovak-Hungarian Chamber of Commerce (Magyar-Czechoslovak Keresdelmi és Ipar Kamara), Holdútka 1, Budapest.
- The Czechoslovak Chamber of Commerce, Prague I., Masarykovo náměstí 4.
- Austria. — The Austro-Czechoslovak Chamber of Commerce, (Československá Handelskammer), Herrengasse 12, Wien I.
- U. S. A. — The Czechoslovak Chamber of Commerce (John A. Sokol), 60, E. So. Water Street, Chicago.

- Switzerland. — The Czechoslovak Chamber of Commerce in Switzerland (Chambre de Commerce tchécoslovaque en Suisse). (Tschechoslovakische Handelskammer in der Schweiz), Bahnhofstraße 67, Zürich.
- Great Britain. — Czechoslovak Section of the London Chamber of Commerce, 67, Cannon Street, London.

THE PRINCIPAL CULTURAL INSTITUTIONS AND ORGANISATIONS IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA

1. Colleges and Scientific Institutes.

- The Charles' University at Prague.
- The Masaryk University at Brno.
- The Komenský University at Bratislava.
- The German University at Prague.
- The Czech Technical College at Prague.
- The Czech Technical College at Brno.
- The Agricultural Department of the Prague German Technical High School at Děčín-Libverda.
- The German Technical College at Brno.
- The Mining College at Příbram.
- The Veterinary College at Brno.
- The Hus Evangelical Faculty at Prague.
- The Cyril and Method Theological Faculty at Olomouc.

2. Art Institutes.

- The Prague Academy of Plastic Art.
- The State Industrial Art School in Prague.
- The Modern Gallery in Prague (with Czechoslovak and German sections).
- The State Conservatoire of Music at Prague.
- The State Musical and Dramatic Conservatoire at Brno.

3. Academies of Science and Art, Learned Societies.

The Bohemian Scientific Society. (Královská česká společnost nauk.) Praha I., Celetná 20. Founded 1879.

The Bohemian Academy of Science and Art. (Česká akademie věd a umění.) Praha II., Václavské nám. (National Museum.) Founded 1888. (With the Bohemian Academy of Science and Art is incorporated the National Economic Institute and also the Czechoslovak Centre for International Intellectual Cooperation, which maintains contact with the International Commission for Intellectual Cooperation at Geneva and the International Institute for Intellectual Cooperation at Paris.)

The Czechoslovak Academy of Agriculture in Prague. Founded 1925.

The Masaryk Academy of Labour in Prague. (Masarykova akademie práce v Praze.) Praha I, Staroměstské nám. 16. Founded 1920.
The Safarik Society at Bratislava. Founded 1926, with the Komenský University. An organisation of scientific life, principally for Slovakia.

4. Scientific and other Specialist Institutes.

The Czech School Society (Matice česká), committee of the National Museum for the scientific culture of the Czech language and literature, Prague.

The Moravian Society (Matice Moravská) in Brno.

The Slovak School Society (Matice slovenská) at Turč. Sv. Martin. Founded in 1863 as an institution of science and popular education, it was suppressed by the Hungarian Government in 1875 and its equipment confiscated. After the creation of the Republic of Czechoslovakia the institute was reopened in 1919.

The National Museum, Prague, Václavské nám. Founded 1818.

The Czechoslovak Ethnographical Museum, Smíchov, Kinského zahrada. Founded 1895.

The Oriental Institute in Prague. Opened 1928, to maintain scientific and economic relations with the Orient.

The Slavonic Institute in Prague. Opened 1928, for the purpose of furthering the scientific study of the Slav peoples and countries and of furthering their scientific, intellectual and economic relations.

The Czechoslovak Foreign Institute. Founded for the purpose of maintaining relations between Czechoslovaks abroad and for safeguarding their interests.

The State Observatory, Prague.

The National Meteorological Institute, Prague.

The National Archeological Institute, Prague.

The National Institute for Historical Monuments, Prague, Brno and Bratislava.

The National Geographical Institute, Prague.

The National Hydrological Institute, Prague.

The Scientific Institute of the Czechoslovak Army, Prague.

The Military Geographical Institute, Prague.

The Museum of the Revolution, Prague.

5. Popular Education.

Osvětový svaz (The Masaryk Institute of Popular Education), Prague XII., Blanická 4. The central establishment for popular education in Czechoslovakia.

The Hus School in Prague. (Popular High School, organised and maintained by the Masaryk Institute of Popular Education.)

The Worker's Academy in Prague. (The Social Democrat Party's institute for the education and instruction of the working class.)

The Central Worker's School in Prague. (The National Socialist institute for the education of the working class.)

The Intellectual Federation for Slovakia, Bratislava.

The Czechoslovak Broadcasting Association (250.000 subscribers), which also pursues popular educational aims.

The Masaryk Aviation League, Prague, — an organisation for developing knowledge of the progress of aviation, among the general public, and of bringing home to them the importance of aviation.

An important place in popular education is held by the libraries. Besides the libraries of higher education, of a purely scientific character and those of different religious confessions and orders (the most important being that belonging to the Strahov monastery at Prague, the collection which numbers 110.000 volumes), public municipal libraries exist in Czechoslovakia for the purpose of educating and instructing the broad masses of the population. In 1925 the number of libraries in Czechoslovakia was 10.878 Czechoslovak, 3.031 German, 531 Hungarian and 43 Polish.

6. Miscellaneous Organisations.

a) Cultural:

"Máj", the society of Czechoslovak writers, Prague II., Národní třída, No 18.

"Mánes", the society of artists, Prague II., Vodičkova 38.

The Syndicate of Czechoslovak Artists, Prague II., Purkyňova 6. Central professional association for the union of all connected with the fine arts.

The Fine Arts Union (Krasoumná jednota), Praha II., Smetanovo náměstí.

The Circle of Arts (Umělecká beseda), Praha III., Besední ulice.

The Constance Union (Kostnická jednota), the cultural centre for Czechoslovak Protestants, Prague II., Jungmannova tř. 15. Czechoslovak Federation of Legionaries (Československá obec legionářská, Praha II., Lazarská 11).

The Czechoslovak Sokol Federation (Československá obec sokolská), Praha III., Újezd, Tyršův dům.

Federation of Czechoslovak Teachers (Československá obec učitelská), Praha IV., Vratislavova 8.

The Union of National Enlightenment (Svaz Národního Osvobození), the organisation for the spreading of intellectual ideas, founded by the Federation of Czechoslovak Legionaries and including numerous societies and associations.

b) Social welfare.

The Czechoslovak Red Cross, Prague VI., Neklanova 147. Comprises 636 local societies, with 237.000 adult and 340.000 junior members and supporting 213 social hygiene institutions and bodies.

The Czechoslovak Society for the Protection of Mothers and Children in the Republic of Czechoslovakia (Čsl. ochrana matek a dětí v Čsl. republice), comprises more than 400 sections and sup-

ports 14 rest houses for mothers, 24 creches and more than 300 consultation centres.

The Czech Provincial Aid Society for sufferers from pulmonary troubles.

The Czech "Diakonie", an Evangelical society for the care of the sick and for social welfare, Prague XII., Belgická 21.

The Masaryk Anti-Tuberculosis League. The league consists of 588 sections in Bohemia, 60 in Moravia, 14 in Silesia, 69 in Slovakia and 12 in Ruthenia, a total of 293 with 37,265 members.

The Social Institute (Sociální ústav), Prague II., Petřské nábř. 12

c) National.

The National Czechoslovak Council (Národní rada československá), Prague I., Valentinská ul., No 1.). This Council constitutes the central and supreme authority for all questions affecting the nation at large.

The Schools Society (Ústřední Matice Školská), Prague I., Husova tř., No. 3.

JOURNALISTS' ORGANISATIONS

The Syndicate of Czechoslovak Journalists. (Syndikát československých novinářů.) Praha I., Parlament. Chairman: Jiří Pichl.

The Union of Czechoslovak Journalists, with the Havlíček Fund. (Jednota československých novinářů.) Praha II., Morav. 6. Chairman: Josef Miškovský. Comprises mainly the editors of provincial papers.

The Society of Czech Journalists. (Spolek českých žurnalistů.) Praha I., Skořepka 7. Chairman: Josef Holeček.

The Czechoslovak Journalists' Club (Klub československých novinářů.) Praha II., Lützowova 3. Chairman: Ladislav Tůma.

The Czech National-Agrarian Editors' Club. (Klub českých národohospodářských redaktorů.) Praha. Chairman: Josef Marek.

The Union of Parliamentary Correspondents. (Sdružení parlamentních zpravodajů.) Praha I., Parlament. Chairman: Josef Penížek.

The Union of Social-Democratic Journalists. (Sdružení novinářů sociálně-demokratických.) Praha.

The Union of the Journalists of the Czechoslovak Populist Party. (Sdružení novinářů čl. strany lidové.) Praha.

The Journalists' Club, Brno. (Klub žurnalistů v Brně.)

The Union of German Journalists in Bohemia. (Verband der deutschen Journalisten in Böhmen.) Praha. Chairman: Josef Stern.

- The National Union of the German Press. (Reichsgewerkschaft der deutschen Presse.) Praha. Chairman: Dr. Fr. Bacher.
- The Syndicate of the Prague Daily Press. (Syndicat der Prager Tagespresse.) Praha. Chairman: Josef Stern.
- The Union of the Editors of the German Social-Democrat Press in the Republic of Czechoslovakia (Vereinigung der Redakteure der deutschen sozialdemokratischen Presse in ČSR.) Praha. Chairman: Dr. Em. Strauss.
- The Union of German Newspaper Correspondents. (Vereinigung der deutschen Zeitungskorrespondenten.) Praha. Chairman: Dr. Ernst Rychínovský.
- The Hungarian Press Syndicate in Czechoslovakia. (Csehoszlovákiai Magyar Ujságírók Szindikátusa.) Praha II., Panská 12. Chairman: Lad. Dzurányi.
- The Association of Hungarian Journalists in Czechoslovakia. (Csehoszlovákiai Magyar Hírlapírók Szervezete.) Bratislava. Chairman: Arnošt Lázló.
- The Hungarian Press Association in Slovakia. (Szlovénká Magyar Ujságírók Szervezete.) Košice. Chairman: Emerich Keller.
- The Press of the Little Entente. The Union of the journalists of Yugoslavia, Rumania and Czechoslovakia. Founded 1925.
- The Czechoslovak-Polish Press Union. Founded 1926
- The Union of Foreign Correspondents. Founded in 1922 in the interests of foreign newspaper correspondents living in Czechoslovakia.

SOCIETIES FOR FOREIGN RELATIONS, PRAGUE

- The French Institute (Institute Français de Prague), Prague II., Ostrovní 6. Tel.: 43519.
- The French Alliance (Alliance Française) c/o. Prof. Alfr. Fichelle, Prague II., Ostrovní 6. Tel.: 43519.
- The Italian Cultural Institute (Istituto di Cultura Italiana), Prague II., Ječná 26. Tel. 40178.
- The Italo-Czechoslovak League (Československo - italská Liga), Prague II., Příkopy 12, Společenský Klub
- The British Society (Britská Společnost), c/o. Univ. doc. Dr. B. Trnka, Prague I., Veleslavínova 96.
- The Prague English Club. Prague II., Novodvorská 1. Tel.: 41632.
- The Anglo-Czechoslovak Committee (Československo-britský Komitét), c/o. Dr. B. Trnka, Prague I., Veleslavínova 96. Tel.: 25719.
- Círculo Español, c/o. Dr. Jar. Lenz, Prague III., Újezd 595, Tel.: 25719.
- The Czechoslovak Rumanian Institute (Československo-Rumunský ústav), Prague II., Reslova ul. Čsl. Obchodní akademie.

- The Czech-Polish Social Club (Česko-polský Společenský Klub) c/o. the Secretary, Ing. Zd. Matoušek, Praha-Hrad. Min. zahr. věcí. V. sekce.
- Academic Circle of Friends of Poland (Akademické kolo přátel Polska), Prague III., Akademický dům, tel.: 271-66.
- The Yugoslav-Czechoslovak League, Československo-jihoslovenská Liga), Prague II., Panská 1. Tel.: 30391.
- The Yugoslav-Czechoslovak Interparliamentary Commission (Meziparlamentní komise československo-jihoslovenská), Prague, Parliament.
- The Czechoslovak-Bulgarian Reciprocal Society, Československo-bulharská vzájemnost) c/o. J. V. Mrkvička, Smíchov, Na Santošce 178.
- The Czech-Lusatian Society, (Českoluzický spolek „Adolf Černý“ C/o. Vlad. Zmeškala, Prague II., Náprstkova 8.
- The Czechoslovak-Latvian Society, (Československo-lotyšská společnost), Prague II., Panská 5.
- The Russo-Czech Union, (Česko-ruská jednota) Prague II., Ječná 32.
- Society for Intellectual and Economic Relations with New Russia, (Společnost pro hospodářské a kulturní sblížení s Novým Ruskem), Praha II., Spálená 7.
- The Danish-Czechoslovak Society, (Československo-dánská Společnost), Prague II., Na Florenci 27. Tel.: 22657.
- The Czechoslovak Committee for Relations with Sweden (Československý komitét pro styky se Švédskem) c/o E. Walter, Bubeneč, Urálské 494.
- The Czechoslovak-Finnish Committee, (Československo-finský komitét), c/o E. Pitlík, Prague III., Valdštýnský palác. Min. obchodu.
- The Czechoslovak Esperanto Institute, (Československo-esperantský ústav), c/o E. Pitlík, Prague III., Valdštýnský palác.

LIST OF FOREIGN ASSOCIATIONS OF FRIENDS OF CZECHOSLOVAKIA

- Yugoslavia. — The Yugoslav-Czechoslovak League in Zagreb. Chairman: Professor Josip Šilovič, Preradovičova ul. 13.
- The Yugoslav-Czechoslovak League in Crikvenice, Hrv. Přímoří, Chairman: Dr. Ivo Sobol.
- The Yugoslav-Czechoslovak League in Ljubljana. Chairman: Dr. Adalbert Kramer.
- The Yugoslav-Czechoslovak League in Maribor. Chairman: Dr. Ludivit Pivko.
- The Yugoslav-Czechoslovak League in Skoplje. Chairman: Kyoslav Kostić.
- The Yugoslav-Czechoslovak League in Ptuj. Chairman: Dr. J. Gosák.
- The Yugoslav-Czechoslovak League in Celje. Chairman: Dr. Juro Hrašovac.

- Poland. — Towarzystwo Polsko-Czeskosłowackie w Poznaniu, Aleje Marcinkowskiego, Wyższa Szkoła Handlowa. Chairman: Dr. Leonard Glabisz, Director of the High School of Commerce.
Akademicke Kolo Przyjaciół Czeskosłowackii, Poznań, Uniwersytet. Chairman: Górka Garszyński.
Kolo Czeskosłowackie przy Kole Naukowem Tow. stud. W. S. H. w Poznaniu, Wyższa Szkoła Handlowa. Chairman: Marjan Iwiański.
Klub Polsko-Czeskosłowacki ve Lvově. Chairman Professor Tadeusz Lehr-Spaliński.
Akademické Kolo Przyjaciół Czeskosłowacji ve Lvově. Chairman: Ing. C. Adam Bobrowski.
- Austria. — Oesterreichisch-čechoslovakischer Verein, Wien.
- Rumania. — Czechoslovak-Rumanian Society Jarník Barseanu (Societatea Romano-ceha v Kluži [Cluj]). Chairman: Professor Silviu Dragomir, Cluj, str. Juliu Maniu 1.
- Italy. — The Italo-Czechoslovak League (Lega Italo-cesoslovacca), Rome, Via Calamatta, Nr. 2. Chairman: Prince Picto di Scalea.

AFFILIATIONS OF INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS AND CORPORATIONS IN THE REPUBLIC OF CZECHOSLOVAKIA

- The Universal Alliance for international Friendship through the Churches, (Československá odbočka Světové aliance pro pěstování mezinárodního přátelství prostřednictvím církví), Prague. Chairman Dr. Frant. Žilka, professor of the Hus Faculty, Prague III., u Havlíčkových sadů, č. 13.
- The International Bureau of Peace, Geneva.
— The Peace Society (Chelčického mírová společnost), Praha II., Karlovo nám.
— The Peace Union for Moravia, Brno (Jednota mírová pro Moravu v Brně.
— Deutsche Frauenliga für Frieden und Freiheit in der Tschechoslov. Republik, Prague.
- The International Commission for Intellectual Cooperation, Geneva.
— The Czechoslovak Committee for International Intellectual Cooperation (Československý komitét Mezinárodní komise pro duševní spolupráci) Prague. Chairman: Professor J. Zubatý.
- The International Federation of Intellectual Workers.
The Federation of Intellectual Workers in Czechoslovakia, Prague. (Konfederace duševních pracovníků v RČS. Praha.) Chairman: Prof. Brdlík.
- The International Entente against the III International, Geneva Czechoslovak Section. Prague Deputy Ant. Hajn.
- The University Federation for the League of Nations, Paris, — The Czechoslovak High School Association for the League of

Nations (Československé vysokoškolské sdružení pro Společnost Národů v Praze), Prague III., Akademický dům.

— The Slovak University Association for the League of Nations, Bratislava, (Slovenské vysokoškolské sdružení pro Společnost Národů v Bratislavě).

— Deutsche akademische Völkerbundliga in der Tschechoslowakischen Republik. Prague.

The International Law Association London,

— The Czechoslovak Section, Prague. Chairman, Dr. V. Mastný.

The Women's International League for Peace and Liberty,

The Czechoslovak section of the Women's International League for Peace and Liberty (Československá odbočka Mezinárodní ligy žen pro mír a svobodu, Praha) Prague, Secretary: Mme Hanousková, Prague-Vořechovka.

The League for the Rights of Man.

The Czechoslovak Section, Prague. Chairman: Dr. Lev Sychrava.

The Rotary International,

in Czechoslovakia, created as an independant district, with 10 Rotary Clubs at Prague, Plzeň, Pardubice, Hradec Králové, Karlovy Vary, České Budějovice, Mladá Boleslav, Kutná Hora, Brno and Bratislava.

The World Brotherhood Federation, London. The Czechoslovak Section of the World Brotherhood Federation is in process of foundation.

The International Union of Associations for the League of Nations, Headquarters Geneva

The Czechoslovak Section for the League of Nations (Československá odbočka pro Spol. Národů při Státovědecké společnosti). Chairman: Senator Dr. Brabec, Prague II., Václavské nám. 15.

The German Section for the League of Nations (Deutsche Liga für Völkerbund und Völkerverständigung). Chairman: Senator Dr. Medinger, Prague II., Krakovská ul. 21.

The Hungarian League in the Republic of Czechoslovakia for the League of Nations, Lučenec.

The Jewish League for the League of Nations in Prague.

(For Students' Associations for the League of Nations see University Federations.)

The Interparliamentary Union, Geneva. The Czechoslovak and German Sections, Prague. Parliament.

Versöhnungsbund. (The Movement for International Peace.)

Czechoslovak Section, Staré Strašnice. Chairman: Heinrich Tutoch.

Y.M.C.A., Young Men's Christian Association. Sdružení YMCA, v Československu, Prague II., Poříč 12.

Y.W.C.A., Young Women's Christian Association. Section of the YWCA. in Czechoslovakia. Prague II., Šerifková ulice 618.

The International Council of Women, section of the Conseil International des Femmes. Chairwoman: Fr. Plamínková, Praha I., Staroměstské nám. 16.

Association of University Women (Sdružení vysokoškolsky vzdělaných žen v ČSR) with local and German sections. Chairwoman: Dr. Tulířová, Prague II., ministerstvo školství.

The International Alliance of Women for Suffrage and Equal Citizenship (Výbor pro volební právo žen a rovná občanská práva), Prague I., Staroměstské nám. Chairwoman: Mme Sedláková.

STATISTICS II

I

AREA AND POPULATION ACCORDING TO PROVINCES

	Area in sq. km	Population in 1921	Density of population per 1 sq. km
Bohemia	52.064	6,670.582	128
Moravia	22.315	2,662.884	119
Silesia	4.423	672.268	152
Slovakia	48.936	3,000.870	61
Ruthenia	12.656	606.568	48
The whole state:	140.394*)	13,613.172	97

POPULATION ACCORDING TO NATIONALITY (Census of 1921)

	per thousand	
Czechoslovak	8.760.957	655.1
Ruthenian	461.849	34.5
German	3.123.568	233.6
Hungarian	745.431	55.7
Jewish	180.855	13.5
Polish	75.953	5.7
Others	25.871	1.9
Foreigners	238.808	
	13,613.172	1000.0

*) By the supplementary adjustment of the frontiers since 1921, the total area of the State has been increased to 140.408 square km, and the population reduced to 13,612.006.

POPULATION ACCORDING TO RELIGION

(Census of 1921 — in brackets figures for 1910)

		per thousand	
Roman-Catholic	10,384,833	762.9	(858.8)
Greek and Armenian Catholic (Uniate)	555,543	59.3	(43.5)
Czech Brethren	233,868	17.2	(17.2)
Evangelical (Angsburg,	555,382	39.3	(40.3)
Evangelical (Calvinistic)	207,906	15.3	(25.4)
Evangelical (others)	13,163	0.9	—
Greek and Armenian Orthodox	73,097	5.4	(0.2)
Old-Catholics	20,255	1.5	—
Czechoslovak Church	525,333	38.6	—
Jews	354,342	26.0	(26.6)
Others	2,824	0.2	—
No Religion	724,507	53.2	—
Religion not known	2,119	0.2	—

OCCUPATIONAL STATISTICS FOR THE YEAR 1921

	in %	1921	1910
A. Agriculture, forestry etc.	5,385.790	39.6	42.0
B. Industries	4,601.098	33.8	34.1
C. Commerce and transport	1,451.541	10.7	10.2
D. State and other public services	750.523	5.5	4.9
E. Unclassified and of independent means	1,424.220	10.4	8.8
		100.0	100.0

ILLITERACY AMONG PERSONS OVER 6 YEARS OF AGE

	Percentage able to read and write	Percentage of illiterates
Bohemia	97.45	2.10
Moravia	96.65	2.91
Silesia	96.05	3.12
Slovakia	83.44	14.71
Ruthenia	48.33	50.03

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE POPULATION FROM 1869 TO 1921

Population of the State

1869	10,487,111
1880	11,080,240
1890	11,701,480
1900	12,662,175
1910	13,595,318
1921	13,613,172

TOWNS WITH A POPULATION OF OVER 20,000

Bohemia:

Praha (Prague)	676,657
Plzeň	108,023
Budějovice	44,022
Ústí n. L.	39,830
Liberec	34,985
Teplice-Šanov	28,899
Cheb	27,524
Most	27,239
Jablonec n. N.	26,929
Pardubice	25,162
Chomutov	21,123
Warnsdorf	20,328

Moravia:

Brno (Brünn)	221,758
Mor. Ostrava	113,709
Olomouc	57,206
Prostějov	31,092
Jihlava	25,634
Přerov	21,416
Znojmo	21,297

Silesia:

Opava	33,457
Slezská Ostrava	22,890
Krnov	21,129

Slovakia:

Bratislava	93,189
Košice	52,898

Carpathian Ruthenia:

Mukačevo	20,865
Užhorod	20,601

II.

BUDGET 1928

Department

	Expenditure	Receipts
<i>A. President of the Republic and the Office of the President</i>	18,468,384	2,473,663
<i>Legislative Bodies</i>	43,614,984	204,000
<i>Cabinet Council</i>	31,428,675	19,085,000
<i>B. Ministry of Foreign Affairs</i>	164,990,650	16,690,000
<i>Ministry of National Defence</i>	1,400,000,000	35,186,000
<i>C. a) Ministry of Interior</i>	6,18,268,600	11,505,960
<i>b) Ministry of Justice and the Supreme Court</i>	299,741,210	14,347,333
<i>c) Agenda of the Ministry for Unification of Laws and organisation of the judicial system</i>	1,939,972	—
<i>d) The Supreme Administrative Court and Electoral Court</i>	6,016,997	164,000
<i>e) Ministry of Education</i>	893,872,048	30,217,399
<i>f) Ministry of Agriculture</i>	216,135,726	15,841,990
<i>g) The State Land Office</i>	28,427,565	28,427,565
<i>h) Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Trade</i>	41,712,542	9,335,900
<i>i) Ministry of Public Works</i>	714,378,733	98,145,800
<i>j) Ministry of Posts and Telegraphs</i>	15,616,890	15,616,890
<i>k) Ministry of Railways</i>	29,945,520	29,945,520
<i>l) Ministry of Social Welfare</i>	865,804,611	16,823,300
<i>m) Agenda of the Ministry of Food</i>	10,610,337	360,000
<i>n) Agenda of the Min. of Public Health</i>	140,733,616	28,826,292
<i>o) Pensions and grants</i>	650,287,000	91,037,990
<i>p) Ministry of Finance</i>	534,485,948	7,441,782,650
<i>Treasury</i>	2,774,369,282	1,656,223,170
<i>Supreme Audit Control Office</i>	5,179,254	—
Total	9,336,073,544	9,562,270,422

THE STATE UNDERTAKINGS

(Sum Totals)

	Expenditure	Surplus	Receipts	Deficit
A. Working accounts	8.064,172.372	9.891,972.810	1.523,550.438	750.000

	Expenditure	Working accounts	Receipts from Treasury Grant	State-Loans
B. Capital Investment accounts	680,050.262	225,306.032	140,000.000	314,744.230

Sum total of net yield of State undertakings to be handed over to the Treasury 1,302,494,406

CZECHOSLOVAK NATIONAL DEBT OF THE END OF 1927

A. Internal debt:

I. Consolidated 19,255,949.504 Kč

II. Floating : 4,336,185.000 Kč

B. Foreign debt 6,392,925.288 Kč

C. Debt accruing from the peace treaties 4,400,000.000 Kč

Total 34,385,059.792 Kč

YIELD OF INDIRECT TAXES, EXCISE DUTIES AND MONOPOLIES, 1926.

TAXES ON CONSUMPTION:	Kč
Tax on Spirits	420,761.508
Sugar tax	261,132.409
Mineral oil tax	19,086.064
Tax on matches	18,486.931
Special tax on bottled wines	9,055.113
General tax on beverages	301,490.620
Meat tax	120,747.955
Octroi tax	18,983.424
Coal tax	241,779.383
Water-power tax	22,722.435
Compensation paid by townships for octroi tax collected by them	1,770.220
Licences for beer on draught	1,491.747
Sundry other receipts	1,491.305
Total yield of taxes on consumption	1,438,642.114

MONOPOLIES:

Salt	26,085.288
Sweetening ingredients	2,032.795
Explosives	16,912.384

STATE ENTERPRISES:

Tobacco monopoly	1,522,391.549
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III.

DISTRIBUTION OF AREA ACCORDING TO CULTIVATION IN 1927

		Percentage					
		Whole state	Bohemia	Moravia	Silesia	Slovakia	Ruthenia
Arable Land	5,914.825	42.14	47.31	51.93	46.13	38.10	17.74
Permanent meadow	1,381.045	9.84	10.87	7.64	6.90	8.99	13.79
Parks, gardens	148.132	1.06	1.17	1.26	1.38	0.89	0.76
Vineyards	16.940	0.12	0.01	0.20	—	0.18	0.24
Pastures	1,194.430	8.51	4.88	5.55	5.04	12.36	15.04
Forests	4,652.257	33.15	30.19	28.77	34.87	34.10	48.80
Fishponds and Lakes	77.453	0.55	0.94	0.46	0.47	0.26	0.27
Area built on and other unproductive areas	650.490	4.63	4.63	4.19	5.21	5.12	3.31
	14,035.572	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

AREAS UNDER CULTIVATION AND CROPS FOR THE YEAR 1927

	ha hectares	q yield (preliminary returns)	q per hect.
Total cereals	3,211.390	—	—
Of which: winter wheat	577.086	9,302.359	16.3
spring wheat	63.652	1,004.215	15.5
winter rye	794.604	12,138.179	15.2
spring rye	26.748	292.337	11.1
barley	708.302	11,925.594	16.8
oats	855.211	13,171.259	15.4
maize	158.514	2,697.166	16.9
Pulse total	175.031	—	—
Commercial and Industrial crops	67.786	—	—
Of which: flax	21.772	—	—
hops	15.759	98.016	7.8
tobacco	1,074.056	—	—
Total hacked crops	5.377	—	—
Of which: potatoes	650.823	77,078.815	119.3
sugar	294.231	75,075.170	256.1
Total vegetable crop	28.939	—	—
Total fodder crop	1,151.727	—	—

AREA UNDER CORN AND PRINCIPAL CROPS

	Area of crops in hect. average		Average yield per hectare in quintals		Total yield in thousands of quintals	
	1920-24	1926	1920-24	1926	1920-24	1926
Wheat	619.876	623.627	14.68	14.90	9.101	9.291
Rye	871.772	831.384	13.74	14.03	11.982	11.661
Barley	676.949	708.605	13.36	16.13	9.043	11.431
Oats	819.242	842.836	13.46	16.37	11.030	13.799
Potatoes	632.492	627.796	98.47	80.39	62.279	50.467
Sugar	234.887	271.421	242.59	243.13	56.982	65.991
Hops	7.967	10.489	6.74	9.22	53.736	96.687

DOMESTIC ANIMALS:

	1925	1920	1910
Horses	740.202	590.687	692.041
Horned cattle	4,691.320	4,376.765	4,595.614
Of which:			
cows	2,331.461	2,027.847	2,298.061
sheep	861.128	985.526	1,322.342
goats	1,244.701	1,220.752	711.196
pigs	2,539.201	2,052.687	2,515.782

To the square kilometre under agriculture there were in 1925:

Horses	8.7
Horned cattle	55.2
Sheep	10.1
Goats	14.7
Pigs	29.9

THE NUMBER OF AGRICULTURAL UNDERTAKINGS IN JUNE 1927

Total	1,468.439
percentage of undertakings utilising	
an area of 10 ares	6.41%
up to 99 ares	23.00%
from 1 to 5 hectares	43.28%
from 5 to 10 hectares	14.29%
from 10 to 30 hectares	10.93%
from 30 to 100 hectares	1.76%
more than 100 hectares	0.33%

From the whole total of agricultural land the proportion taken up by undertakings was:

up to 10 ares	0.06%
from 99 ares	2.08%
from 1 to 5 hectares	21.32%
from 5 to 10 hectares	18.30%
from 10 to 30 hectares	30.28%
from 30 to 100 hectares	14.49%
more than 100 hectares	13.47%

IV.

COAL OUTPUT (TONS)

	Hard coal	Lignite
1910	12,354.000	22,625.000
1919	10,254.233	17,323.961
1920	11,374.954	19,956.610
1921	12,023.209	21,335.128
1922	10,464.990	19,174.296
1923	12,347.251	16,265.530
1924	15,178.941	20,459.690
1925	12,754.456	18,789.098
1926	14,507.596	18,799.278
1927	14,669.977	20,027.796

SUGAR PRODUCTION

during season	number of sugar factories in operation	output of sugar in terms of raw sugar quintals
1918/19	175	6,481.813
1919/20	175	5,014.183
1920/21	172	7,229.949
1921/22	170	6,629.287
1922/23	169	7,360.297
1923/24	170	10,111.269
1924/25	168	14,283.700
1925/26	166	15,073.436
1926/27	163	10,458.194

EXPORT OF SUGAR

amount in terms of raw sugar.

	quintals
1918/19	1,262.342
1919/20	3,661.439
1920/21	3,959.117
1921/22	4,002.540
1922/23	3,824.377
1923/24	6,597.486
1924/25	9,909.860
1925/26	10,799.104
1926/27	7,208.576

BEER PRODUCTION

	Number of breweries in operation	Output and export in hl	
1921	590	6,553.765	152.407
1922	591	6,122.668	44.901
1923	584	7,272.772	39 074
1924	572	8,580.550	172.987
1925	552	9,215.243	236.756
1926	525	9,712.625	222.134

COMMODITY PRICE INDEX

100 = level of prices in July, 1914.

	Wholesale index	Wholesale index in gold parity
January 1922	1.728	124.9
July 1922	2.184	138.5
January 1923	991	154.9
July 1923	949	142.9
January 1924	9.74	142.6
July 1924	953	137.7
January 1925	1.045	151.4
July 1925	1.009	
January 1926	966	
July 1926	948	
January 1927	979	
July 1927	992	
January 1928		

UNEMPLOYMENT

		Number of unemployed
In January	1923	321.020
	1924	169.302
	1925	71.042
	1926	61.876
	1927	83.271
In November	1927	38.220

V.

THE FOREIGN TRADE OF CZECHOSLOVAKIA in thousands of crowns:

	Imports	Exports	Favourable Balance
1920	23,384.412	27,569.415	4,185.003
1921	22,433.293	27,311.586	4,878.292
1922	12,695.516	18,086.349	5,390.833
1923	10,222.288	12,573.315	2,351.027
1924	15,862.297	17,022.251	1,159.953
1925	17,618.111	18,821.118	1,203.007
1926	15,276.671	17,856.559	2,579.988
1927	17,929.982	20,127.173	2,197.191

THE FOREIGN TRADE according to Brussels nomenclature.

value in thousands of crowns:

	Imports		Exports	
	1926	1927	1926	1927
Live Stock	605.405	724.662	54.987	48.053
Food and Beverages	3,419.509	3,790.823	3,340.199	2,871.295
Raw Material	7,204.324	8,497.180	3,170.680	3,947.293
Finished Goods	4,043.383	4,903.146	10,883.540	13,248.140
Precious metal and specie	41.450	14.187	107.153	12.393

VI.

RAILWAY STATISTICS

Total length of lines in Č. S. R. at end of 1924	13,456 km
From this total, State owned lines and private lines controlled by the State amounted to	13,037 km

Locomotives and motor wagons on all railways	4.549
Passenger cars	8.366
Trucks and mail vans	120.512
Number of passengers carried	320,936 390
Total weight carried in tons	89,964.112
Freight receipts	4.445,204.661 Kč
Ticket receipts	4.618,483.191 Kč
Number of persons employed	164.677

RAILWAY TRAFFIC

	total wagons loaded	for coal transport	No of passengers carried
1924	5,350.111	1,721.193	241,037.861
1925	5,521.703	1,510.208	258,396.104
1926	5,585.052	1,589.086	258,885.416
1927	6,127.813	1,586.385	

POST, TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE STATISTICS, 1926

I. Post.	1926	1922
Number of post offices and sub offices	4.542	4.605
Number of post offices or sub offices per head of population	3.148	2.993
Total number of letters handled	908,120.145	749,534.760
Of which number the Inland traffic totalled	745,039.566	628,591.392
and the foreign traffic	163,080.579	120,943.368
II. Telegraphs.		
Total length of telegraph lines	20.594.7 km	20.796.9 km
" " " wires	127.470.7 km	126.826.0 km
Total number of telegrams dealt with	15,241.558	17,241.676
III. Telephone.		
Number of urban sections	1.323	977
Length of urban lines	17.159.9 km	14.613.0 km
" " " wires	292.248.8 km	167.416.0 km
" " inter-urban cables	14.767.6 km	12.889.0 km
" " " wires	108.790.1 km	76.941.0 km

WATER TRANSPORT

Length of navigable waterways

Total length for service:

in Bohemia	206.0 km
on the Váh	40.0 km
on the Danube	172.0 km

MOTOR VEHICLES

Number registered.

	1922	I X 1926
Motorcycles	2.489	14.551
Tricycles	388	382
Private cars	4.928	16.880
Commercial cars	1.932	6.400
Autobuses	126	676
Other vehicles	66	654
Total	9 929	39.543

The total capacity of the 39.543 is 698.230 HP.

Of this total, those manufactured in Czechoslovakia

amounted to	40.7%
in America	14.9%
„ Great Britain	13.3%
„ Germany	11.5%
„ Austria	7.1%
„ France	5.5%
„ Italy	4.5%

VII.

FIDUCIARY CIRCULATION

(in thousands of crowns):

31/I	1921	10,888.319
31/I	1922	11,230.065
31/I	1923	9,222.434
31/I	1924	8,810.093
31/I	1925	7,916.540
31/I	1926	7,244.861
31/I	1927	6,968.521
31/I	1928	7,098.740

DEPOSITS IN BANKING INSTITUTIONS.

(in millions of crowns).

		Commercial Banks	Savings Banks	Credit Societies	Raiffeisen Loan Societies
in Bohemia, in Moravia, in Silesia					
31/XII	1919	1.267.7	5.326.3	2.387.7	1.346.5
31/XII	1920	2.286.4	5.886.6	2.898.6	1.600.7
31/XII	1921	4 158.1	7.406.6	4.317.4	2.292.7
31/XII	1922	6.004.5	8.636.4	5.202.1	2.649.8
31/XII	1923	6.394.5	10.260.0	5 869.9	1.808.6
31/XII	1924	7.116.6	11.354.0	6.840.1	3.265.3
31/XII	1925	7 637.8	11.871.9	7.291.4	3.466.3
31/XII	1926	8.730.8	13.615.9	7.972.5	3.709.8

Federations of credit cooperatives		District agricultural credit societies	Joint-Stock banks in Slovakia	
31./XII.	1919	983'4	829'2	1.137'1
	1920	1.018'1	1.019'2	1.403'5
	1921	1.563'2	1.491'7	1.924'4
	1922	1.648'8	1.712'5	2.082'1
	1923	1.808'6	1.908'7	2.088'7
	1924	11'7	2.122'2	2.215'0
	1925	18'4	2.405'2	2.395'8
	1926	24'0	2.625'0	2.487'4

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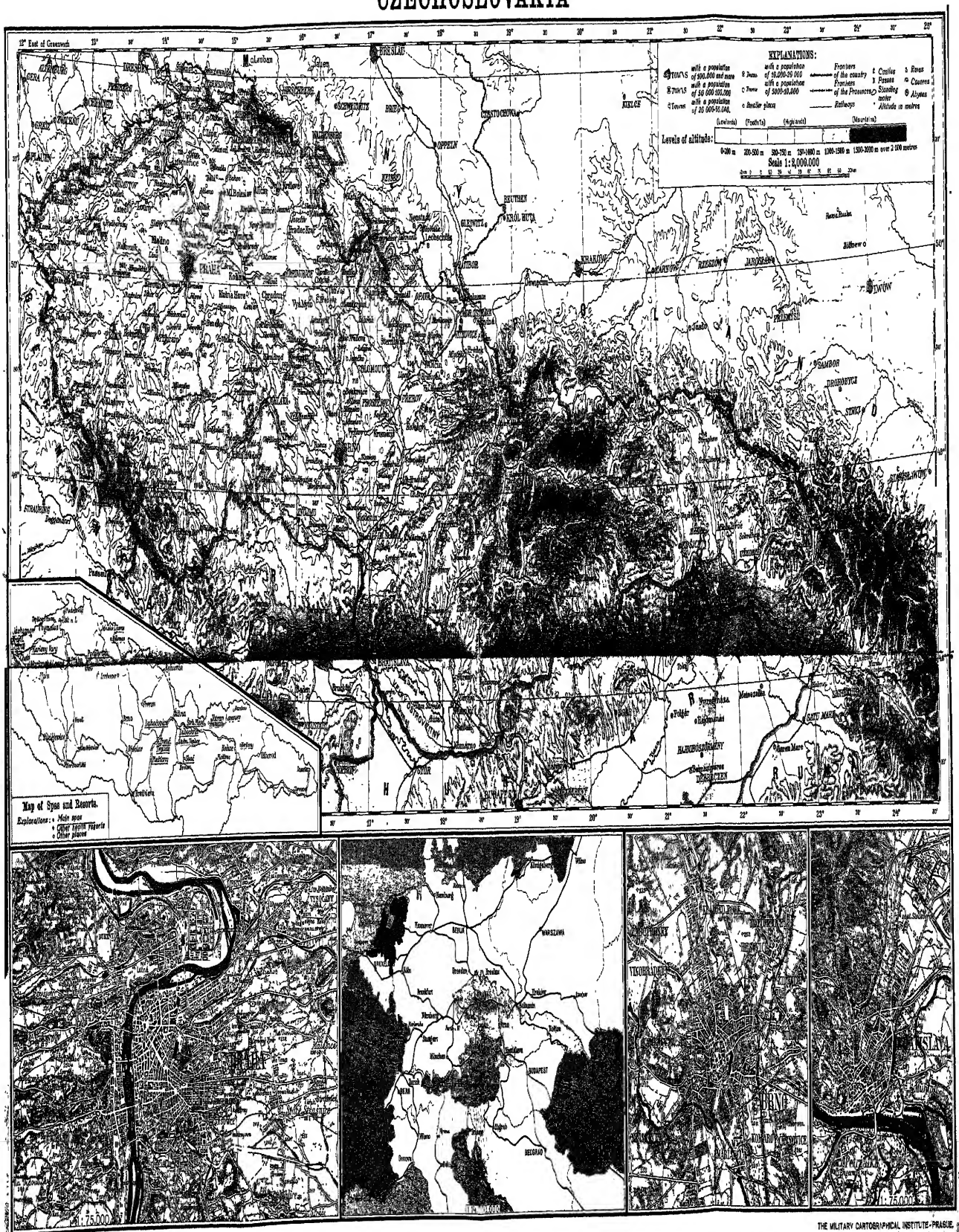
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CZECHOSLOVAKIA



THE MILITARY CARTOGRAPHICAL INSTITUTE-PRAHA

Area	Population according to nationality	Population according to religion	Population according to occupation	Largest towns according to census of 1930	Distribution of land area	Coal production in 1930	Foreign trade in 1930	The most important exports are:	Amount of peace industry in production
161,594 sq. kilometers	Czechs and Slovaks 85.9%	Roman Catholic 76.3%	Agriculture 31.5%	Prague 725,594 inhabitants	Arable land 48.0%	Lignite 32,709,558 tons	Imports 5,210,537 tons	Textile manufactures and semi-manufactures, lignite and black leather, sugar, porcelain and pottery, fats, hops, goods, machinery, etc.	
Population according to census of 1931 23,613,172	Czechoslovak 85.9%	Other Catholics 5.0%	Industry and trades 34.6%	Brno 251,238	Meadows and pasture land 23.4%	Black coal 15,312,405	Exports 15,312,405 tons	Raw materials for textile industry, iron, steel, copper, lead, zinc, etc.	
	Poles 6.0%	Protestants 7.3%	Commerce and transport 9.9%	Olomouc 155,709	Orchards, gardens and meadows 5.1%	Production of raw sugar in 1927-28 1,344,559	Exports 15,312,405 tons	The most important imports are:	
	Germans 35.4%	Eastern Orthodox 6.3%	Public services, etc. 6.6%	Pilsen 110,675	Forests 12.0%	Production of iron: 21 thousand tons annually	Imports 5,210,537 tons	Raw materials for textile industry, iron, steel, copper, lead, zinc, etc.	
	Magyars 3.0%	Czechoslovak Church 3.0%	Domestic services, other private enterprises and without occupation 45.4%	Bratislava 71,558	Playgrounds, lakes, etc. 5.0%		Imports 5,210,537 tons	Raw materials for textile industry, iron, steel, copper, lead, zinc, etc.	
Density of population 146 per sq. kilometer	Jews 1.0%	Unsubscribed 0.5%					Imports 5,210,537 tons	Raw materials for textile industry, iron, steel, copper, lead, zinc, etc.	

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